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ART. I.—*Abdollatiphi Historia Ægypti Compendium, Arabice et Latine. Partim ipse vertit, partim a Pocockio versum edendum curavit, Notisque illustravit J. White, S. T. P. &c. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. White. 1800.*

ABDOLLATIPH we expected for a long time in vain. From Dr. White alone could we receive the work with advantage; and the languor, the almost periodical torpor, which occasionally seizes literary men, and which seems to have fixed on our professor with an inveterate obstinacy, and with intervals short and distant, led us nearly to despair. The Diatesaron induced us however to hope the fit was already in its wane; and the Ægyptiaca, soon succeeded by the present work, supported the expectation. May its return be far distant!

The great utility of Abdollatiph's *Compendium* is derived from the æra of the author, and his very peculiar opportunities of obtaining accurate information. Living in the middle age—for he was born in the year 1161—he forms a resting-place between the æra of Herodotus and Pococke; and, in the period of the crusades, he supplies what the ruder warriors, the unlettered princes, would overlook. They wandered over classic scenes and sacred ground with little animation—without the enthusiasm which must have been raised in minds once acquainted with the actions of which Ægypt was the theatre. Abdollatiph, on the contrary, visited that once famous country to examine its antiquities and natural curiosities. He saw the middle period between its splendor and degradation: he witnessed the state of remaining monuments of greatness and of art, before they were yet lost to the admiring world.

About the same period flourished two authors of considerable character and respectability, whose remains are still with us—Abdollatiph and Macrisi: the latter more copious and eloquent; the former possessing a greater extent of knowledge, and a more acute penetration. Abdollatiph moreover resided in Egypt under the protection of the emperor, or his officers. His way

was open on all sides; and he had nothing to fear from either jealousy or superstition. To the inquiry to which he devoted himself, to the examination of the precious ruins of Egypt, he brought a mind already well stored with whatever the ancients had taught or remarked, and which the Arabians had already made their own;—for he seems unacquainted with the Greek language.

The History of Abdollatiph is styled a Compendium; and, in fact, it is abridged from a larger work, and compacted with peculiar conciseness. Pococke, the son of the traveler, had, under the father's auspices, translated almost the whole into Latin. Hunt, who received this translation from Pococke's surviving son, declares that it was finished, and adds his testimony—no common one—of the excellence of the execution. Pococke had in reality begun the printing of his translation, but changed his resolution of publishing it, when he had reached the fourth chapter \*. The remainder is therefore the work of Dr. White,—in the historical and narrative parts translated somewhat more freely; in the rest more literally: yet in no instance does he profess himself to be the '*fidus interpres*,' who renders word for word, but the writer of a work, as he remarks, '*strenua cujusdam inertiae, et diligentiae obscura*;'—a character perhaps pointedly adapted to Mr. Taylor's late version.

Some years since, Dr. White printed the Arabic text in an octavo form, without any translation or notes. He seems to have suppressed the edition in this country, but permitted its publication at Tubingen; and a preface was prefixed by Paulus, the professor of Oriental languages at Iena. A German translation was published at Halle by M. Wahl; and a specimen of this, with a less elegant and accurate translation found among the papers of Pococke—perhaps a first sketch—is added in the appendix. This specimen is a continuation of the fourth chapter, where the translation, which has been published, concludes.

The preface of Paulus to the octavo edition of the Arabic original is prefixed, as containing some account of the manuscript from which it was printed: it is followed by the life of Abdollatiph himself.

The life of the author needs not detain us, except to remark, that he acquired all the learning which Bagdat could furnish, and attained a considerable knowledge of grammar, rhetoric, dialectics, history, poetry, and medicine. He did not neglect the studies essential to a good mussulman; and was no mean proficient in the Mahometan law and a knowledge of

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\* Pococke translated only six pages as they stand in the present edition; and the fourth chapter of the first book contains sixty-two pages. Pococke's work concludes at p. 99.



the Koran. He began his travels at the age of twenty-eight; went to Mosul, Damascus, and Jerusalem. From the latter city he turned towards Acre to visit Saladin, the rival and opponent of our first Richard. Saladin had however experienced a signal defeat at Acre, a town which has lately witnessed a second triumph of the Christian arms—we can scarcely say, opposed to Christians. He could not be introduced to the sultan; but he was kindly entertained by Bohaddin, the kidilisker, whose life he afterwards wrote by command of Saladin. Notwithstanding some temptations thrown in his way, he resolved to visit Egypt, which was indeed the object of his attention to the sultan at Acre; and received from some of his generals the warmest recommendations to the principal officers in that country, who assisted him in all his inquiries.

When Saladin had concluded a truce with the Franks, Abdollarip returned to Damascus, where he was liberally entertained by Saladin; and, after his death, he returned to Egypt with his sons. His various travels after this period it is not necessary to detail: he died at Bagdat forty-five years after he had first left it, consequently at the age of seventy-three. His writings were numerous; but the work before us alone remains. His biographer Osaida mentions more than one hundred and fifty tracts in medicine and natural history. The present treatise, as we have said, is an abridgement of his larger work; and there is reason to believe that in this he has only inserted what he observed himself.

The work itself consists of two tracts. The first contains miscellaneous information respecting Egypt; viz. the general properties of the country, its plants, animals, shipping, antiquities, curious buildings, viands, and cookery. The second an account of the Nile, the causes of its increase, and the laws by which it is regulated; together with a dreadful history of a famine occasioned by its failure.

To give an analysis of a work where the information is so closely compacted, is a very difficult task; and to select every fact, either of curiosity or importance, would be equally operose. We trust the period is not far distant when we may receive an English version from the luminous and comprehensive pen of the author. But as another paroxysm of languor may intervene—and the last was not a short one,—as additional rank and new honours, which he truly deserves, may open other views, we shall give some copious specimens of the work in its present state; and, to gratify readers of every class, some of these shall be in English.

The first chapter contains a general description of Egypt, and of its climate. The following passage—which we insert equally as a specimen of Dr. Pococke's elegant concinnity, and of

the author's comprehensive terseness—gives some new ideas of the climate of this singular country.

‘ Ex his etiam est, quod Eurus ab iis cohibeatur monte orientali, *Al Mokattem* dicto; ille siquidem occludit ab iis ventum hunc benignum, et vix ad ipsos libere aspirat, verum obliquo tantum flatu. Atque hinc elegerunt prisci *Ægyptii* sedem regni *Menufa* ponere, aut in ejusmodi loco, qui a monte hoc orientali, occidentem versus, longe abesset. Græci etiam *Alexandriam* elegerunt, et loco *Fostata* devitarunt, ob vicinitatem ejus ad *Al Mokattem*: siquidem mons magis illud obtegit, quod ad radicem suam est, quam quod longius distat. Deinde, quia sol ortum suum ipsis differt, raro in eorum aëre maturescunt fructus, et diu eos cohibet nox. Ideoque reperies ea *Ægypti* loca quæ Euro patent, melioris esse sortis quam alia. Et ob multam humiditatem ejus, cito ipsi obvenit putredo, et multiplicantur in ea mures, qui e luto nascuntur, multique sunt in *Cusa* scorpiones, et plerumque ictu interimunt, et culices fœtidi, et muscæ, et pulices, quæ diu permanent.

‘ Ex his etiam est, quod Auster, cum ipsis hyeme, et vere, et postea afflet, valde frigidus sit; eumque *Al Marisi* appellant ob transitum ejus per terram *Al Maris*, quæ est e regionibus *Nigritarum*. Et causa frigiditatis ejus est, quod transeat per lacus et stagna. Argumentum autem veritatis hujus rei est, quod ubi per dies aliquot continuos duraverit, redeat ad calorem suum naturalem, et aërem calefaciat, siccitatemque in eo efficiat.’ P. II.

Of the plants of Egypt we have short, but generally satisfactory, accounts. Of our author's talents in descriptions of natural history, we shall give a specimen in that of the balsam-tree; and shall endeavour to render it in English. The greater number of the plants and animals mentioned are illustrated in the notes by the addition of the Linnæan names.

‘ The balm, or balsam, another plant peculiar to Egypt, is at this day only to be found in a place near Ain Shems, which is inclosed and carefully preserved, and takes in the space of about seven acres. This shrub grows to the height of a cubit, or more. It has two coats of bark; the upper red and thin, the under thick and green; which, when chewed, produces a kind of oiliness and aromatic flavour in the mouth. Its leaves are like those of rue. The oil extracted from this plant is procured at the rising of the dog-star, by making an incision in the bark, after the leaves have been shaken off. The incision is made with a sharp stone; and some skill is required in performing the operation, that the upper rind may be cut, and the under one slit, yet so that the fissure do not penetrate to the wood; for, if the wood be pierced, no distillation will follow. After some person has made the incision in the manner described, it is left till the sap begins to run and descend down the trunk, when it is stroked with a finger into a horn, which being filled, the contents are poured into glass bottles. This process is continued till the sap has ceased to flow. Whenever there



is a more than ordinary moisture in the air, the sap distils more freely, and in greater abundance; but in a dry season it is scarce. The quantity produced in the year 596 (which was a dry year) amounted to twenty rotals.

‘ The bottles, thus filled, are buried till the violence of the summer heat be past; when they are taken up, and exposed to the sun; in which state the sap is daily watched. An oil is then found to float on the liquid and earthy dregs; which being taken off, the remainder is again exposed to the sun: and thus the process is continued of exposing the sap to the sun, and extracting the oil from the surface, till the latter is wholly exhausted.

‘ The person who superintends this business, sublimes and prepares the oil (no one besides being suffered to behold the preparation), and then transfers it to the royal repository.

‘ The quantity of oil thus purified from the sap amounts nearly to a tenth part of the whole. A person, well informed of these particulars, acquainted me that the entire produce of oil amounted to twenty rotals. I know that Galen says, “ the best oil of balsam is that which is found in Palestine; for that which Egypt produces is weaker.” But we are at present acquainted with no such plant in Palestine.’ P. 23.

The third chapter relates to the animals of Egypt; and the author begins with the account of the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by artificial heat. The description is, however, somewhat different from the common one. We shall add the introduction.

‘ The hatching chickens by the *warmth of dung* is a part of this subject—for in Egypt we scarcely see them hatched by the incubation of a hen. Perhaps they are unacquainted with this method; but since the former is a peculiar profession, a lucrative trade, and an object of commerce, there are many places in each district assigned for the purpose. Each spot is styled *the manufactory of chickens*. This manufactory is a large area, where from ten to twenty cells are constructed, of which we shall again speak. In each of these there are about 2000 eggs, and it is styled *the house of incubation*.’ P. 61.

A particular account of the whole process follows.

The asses are very large and active, so as to excel even the horses in speed; and are nearly equal in height to the mules. The latter are, however, in great request; but those produced from the horse and ass are not so large as those whose dam is a mare—*mater enim est quæ dat materiam*.—The description of the crocodile we shall transcribe.

‘ Ex his etiam sunt *crocodili*: crocodili autem in Nilo multi sunt, præsertim in superiore *Thebaide*, et in *Gennadel*; illi siquidem in aquis degunt, et inter saxa *Gennadel* vermium ritu abundant; suntque tam magni quam parvi; magnitudine autem, ultra viginti cubitos longi evadunt. Reperitur in superficie corporis ejus, juxta ventrem, glan-

dula ad instar ovi, ex humore sanguineo composita, quæ est veluti vesicula moschi, et forma et præstantia; et narravit mihi fide dignus, quandoque ex iis esse, quæ summum moschi gradum exæquent, neque ipsi omnino cedant. Parit etiam ova crocodilus, ovis gallinaceis similia; et vidi in libro quodam Aristoteli attributo, verba quæ ita sonant. Crocodili, inquit, jecur excitat Venerem, renes vero, et adeps eorum ad hoc magis efficaces sunt; pellem ipsius ferrum non penetrat, et a vertebis colli ejus ad caudam usque est os unum; ideoque si in dorsum resupinetur, nequit resurgere. Parit etiam, inquit, ova longa, veluti anserina, quæ in arena occultat; et cum prodit, est instar lacertorum, *hardhun* dictorum, corpore et forma; tum augescit, donec fiat decem cubitorum et amplius; parit etiam sexaginta ova, natura enim ejus sexagenis gaudet; habetque sexaginta dentes et sexaginta nervos; et cum coit, sexagies semen emit, vivitque etiam sexaginta annos.' P. 73.

The skink our author supposes to be the terrestrial offspring of the crocodile; but in this he is evidently misinformed, as well as respecting its cardiac and Aphrodisiac virtues. The hippopotamus was once found in the rivers of Egypt, but the race is there extinct; and we believe this animal rarely occurs where the human form is numerous. Had not our author described it so carefully, and possess so many opportunities of correct information—without the slightest temptation to mislead, and beyond all suspicion of being deceived—we should have doubted the existence of this animal in Egypt at any time. His brief description is admirably impressive.

' Ex his etiam est *hippopotamus*: hic autem reperitur in inferioribus terræ tractibus, præsertim in fluvio *Damiatæ*. Estque animal mole magnum, aspectu terribile, robore præstans; naves assequitur easque submergit, et si quas earum invadat, pereunt: est autem bubalis quam equo similior, nisi quod non sint ipsi cornua. Inest voci ejus raucedo, similis hinnitui equino, aut muli potius; estque magno capite, amplis faucibus, acutis dentibus, lato pectore, ventre tumido, curtis cruribus, insultu ferox, impetu fortis, terribilis forma, fraudulentia metuendus. Narravit autem mihi qui eos sæpius venatus est, dissecuitque, et membra eorum tam interna quam externa exploravit; esse eum porcum magnum, et partes ejus tam internas, quam externas, ne minimum quidem a porco forma differre, solummodo magnitudine dimensionis.' P. 77.

The torpedo is described with equal spirit and forcible elegance; but in one or two circumstances our author seems to have been misinformed.

Abdollatiph next speaks of the pyramids; and remarks that there was formerly a much greater number, of a smaller size; and that several of the latter were destroyed to build the citadel Al Moskat at Cairo, and to support the two fountains called *Joseph's Well*; for, in reality, this single well merits the double name, since, at a certain depth, there is a platform, whence it



is again sunk deeper; and to which the water is brought from the lower well, previous to its final discharge on land. The appellation of *Joseph's Well* is not derived, as some have supposed, from the patriarch, but from Salah Oddin Joseph Ebn Job; in whose reign the citadel was built and the well sunk.

The pyramids are described with our author's usual close perspicuity. 'They endure' (he says) 'in opposition to the vicissitudes of time: nay, time endures in opposition to their changes.' The contrivance, he thinks, is admirable, and displays equal judgement and skill; as the pyramid's centre of gravity is in the middle, against which the whole rests; and the centre cannot be of course displaced. As usual, perhaps, the theory has been superadded to the observation.

The stone of which the pyramids are built is said to be red marble, mixed with white points: it was more probably the red granite of Upper Egypt. On the top is 'a plane, of which the dimensions each way are twelve (Æthiopian) cubits.' This was found by an arrow falling on it, which the inhabitants, who are reported to scale the pyramids with ease, brought down; while at the same time they ascertained the measure of the plane. A stupid or an interested governor is said to have attempted the demolition of one of the pyramids; and to have continued the labour with such perseverance, that 'if, says the historian, we look at the ruins, we should think he had succeeded; if at the pyramid, it appears not to have been touched:'—a sublime representation of the immense mass! Our author asked one of the surveyors of the workmen—for he was present at the attempted demolition—if he would engage to replace a single stone in its proper situation were he offered a thousand pieces of gold; 'who swore, by the high God, that it would be impracticable, even were twice the sum proposed.' We must not leave these singular structures, without giving our author's description of their internal cavities. Those who have supposed that there are larger chambers than have been discovered, will find, from this account, that they must at least have been very carefully concealed by the first builders, which indeed may have been the case; for no impediment of jealousy could have kept the secret from the historian. It may however be remarked, that the present opening is said to have been discovered by chance.

• Est etiam in una duarum harum pyramidum aditus, quo eam ingrediuntur homines, quique eos ad semitas angustas ducit, et cavernas profundas, puteosque, et loca periculosa, aliaque hujusmodi: quæ mihi narravit qui eam ingressus est, penetravitque. Multis siquidem erga eam studium, et circa eam imaginatio est, ideoque in profunda ejus penetrant; necessario autem eo perveniunt, ut progredi nequeant. Quod vero ad viam qua ingrediuntur, ea multum trita est; locus autem lubricus ad superiorem ejus partem ducit, ubi

reperitur domus quadrata, inque ea sepulchrum lapideum. Hic autem aditus, non est porta, ipsi a prima structura apposita, verum perforatus est et fortuito repertus; memoraturque *Al Mamun* eum primo aperuisse. Præcipui vero qui nobiscum erant, eam ingressi sunt, ascenderuntque in domum quæ in superiore ejus parte est; cumque descenderent, magna narrabant quæ spectaverant, esseque eam vespertilionibus, eorumque stercore ita plenam, ut fere ingressum prohiberent; vespertilioes autem ita magnos esse, ut mole columbas æquent: esse item ipsi prope summitatem, foramina et fenestras; tanquam illuc loci posita, ut permearent venti, et transmittetur lux. Ipse vero alia vice eam cum cœtu quodam ingressus sum; cumque circiter bis tertiam spatii partem pertigissem, defeci animo præ terrore ascensus, et redii fere exanimis.

‘Hæ autem pyramides lapidibus magnis extructæ sunt; est enim lapidum longitudo a decem ad viginti cubitos, altitudo a duobus ad tres, cum eadem fere latitudine. Summum vero omnium miraculum est in concinna lapidum ad se invicem positione, quæ ea est, ut aptior fieri non possit, unde non reperies inter ipsos quo acus ingrediat, neque pili interstitium. Est etiam inter eos cæmentum instar folii, quod non novi cujus generis, quidve sit. Sunt item in his lapidibus inscriptiones calami antiqui, ignoti, ita ut non reperiatur in urbibus Ægypti, qui asserat se de quopiam audivisse, qui illum calleret. Suntque hæ inscriptiones multæ admodum, ita ut si quod in his duabus pyramidibus solummodo est, in libros transferretur, conficeret numerum decies millium librorum. Legi autem in libro quodam *Sabæorum* antiquorum, unam e duabus his pyramidibus, sepulchrum fuisse *Agadhimuni*, alteram vero *Hermetis*: asseruntque hos prophetas magnos fuisse, *Agadhimunum* autem priorem, majoremque.’  
P. 97.

It is evident from the observation just now recorded—viz. that the inhabitants were able with ease to mount the pyramids—that their state must have been different at that time from the present. Indeed it has been said that they were faced with marble; and Abdollatiph remarks, that the external stones were covered with marks ‘*calami ignoti*,’—most probably hieroglyphics; and that if these characters were transcribed, they would fill ten thousand volumes. The hieroglyphics still remain on the obelisks of Pharaoh; and we hope, from some late discoveries, that we may find a clue to that unknown tongue. But, whatever may have been the extent of the surface, we still think Abdollatiph’s calculation of the number of volumes erroneous. If, as Herodotus tells us, the inscription on one part contained an account of the garlic and onions consumed by the workmen, we shall not greatly regret the loss we now sustain. In the neighbourhood of the pyramids are the quarries from which the stone was taken; and in the vicinity are also ruins of buildings, covered with hieroglyphics.

In the neighbourhood of the pyramids, a gigantic head, of



admirable proportions, rises from the ground, supposed to have belonged to a statue of equal dimensions, which must have been at least seventy cubits in height. It was one of the immense works of the earlier kings, and is now known to be the head of the fabulous monster denominated the Sphinx; yet it is described as '*formæ pulchræ, in qua decus et elegantia ejus perfecte expressa est, quasi rideret diducto parum ore.*' Abdollatiph admires the symmetry of the face, and adds some judicious remarks on the proportions of the features, particularly as suited to different ages, which show that he possessed a very refined taste, formed by a contemplation probably of the most beautiful works of art, or of the 'human face divine,' in its most perfect form. The mutilated state of the Sphinx no longer admits that we should appropriate this description to it.

The obelisks of Pharaoh are next described. The base is said to be ten cubits, and the height of the column to exceed one hundred. Their summit is a blunt point, the top of which is covered with brass. There are two, apparently of equal size. Of Pompey's pillar we have already spoken sufficiently, in our account of Dr. White's *Ægyptiaca*.

The description of the city of Memphis, the ancient metropolis, is singular, not only from our author's account of the remaining temple and the divinities, but as it fixes the situation where the latest and best geographers have placed it. The following passage is in many respects curious; and we shall subjoin Dr. White's note. It leads us to regret that the notes in general are so few, and so short.

' Porro ex his sunt rudera quæ sunt in *Mesra Antiqua*; estque urbs hæc in Al Giza paulo supra Fostatam, Memphis nempe illa, quam habitarunt Pharaones, quæque sedes erat regni regum *Ægypti*. Ea designatur illo loco Alcorani, ubi sermo est de Mose (super quem pax): "Et intravit in urbem, tempore negligentiae habitatorum ejus." Item: "Exivit ergo ab ea timens, sibi que cavebat." Etenim habitaculum ejus (sit pax super eum) erat in pago aliquo Al Giza, prope urbem dictam Demuh. In ea autem hodie synagoga est Judæorum, et spatium, per quod ruinarum ejus vestigia reperiuntur, extenditur ad iter quod sit circiter dimidii diei. Habitata fuit inde a temporibus in quibus floruerunt Abrahamus et Josephus et Moses, (super quos sit pax); tum ante eos (uti Deo visum est), tum infra eos, usque ad tempus Nabuchodonosoris. Hic enim devastavit regionem *Ægypti*; quæ per annos quadraginta conditione hac rerum pertristi est usa. Eam cur devastaret, fuit hoc in causa, quod sit rex illius opitulatus Judæis, in *Ægyptum* elapsis; ita ut Nabuchodonosor eos ditioni suæ subicere minus potuerit. Quapropter adortus eum Nabuchodonosor, regionem ejus evertit.' P. 117.

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' Aristotelis locum, quem ante oculos habuit noster, dudum a me quæsitum, reperi tandem in libro primo cap. 5. *De Partibus Anim.*

indicio viri doctissimi Samuelis Parr. Adjiciam Aristotelis ipsissima verba:—λοιπον περι της ζωϊκης φυσεως ειπειν, μηδεν παραλιποντας εις δυναμιν, μητε ατιμωτερον, μητε τιμιωτερον. Και γαρ εν τοις μη κεχαρισμενοις αυτων προς την αισθησιν, κατα την θεωριαν ομως η δημιουργησασα φυσις αμηχανως ηδονας παρεχει τοις δυναμενοις τας αιτιας γνωριζειν, και φυσει φιλοσοφοις. Και γαρ αν ειη παραλογον και ατοπον, ει τας μεν εικονας αυτων θεωρουντες χαιρομεν, οτι την δημιουργησασαν συνθεωρουμεν, οιον την γραφικην, η την πλαστικην· αυτων δε των φυσει συνεστωτων μη μαλλον αγαπωμεν την θεωριαν, δυναμενοι γε τας αιτιας καθοραν. Διο δει μη δυσχεραινειν παιδικως την περι των ατιμωτερων ζων επισκεψιν· εν πασι γαρ τοις φυσικοις ενεστι τι θαυμαστον. Και καθαπερ Ηρακλειτος λεγεται προς της ξενης ειπειν της βελομενης αυτω εντυχειν, οι επειδαν προσιοντες ειδον αυτον φερομενον προς τω ικνω, εστησαν· εκελευσε γαρ αυτης εισιεναι θαρρυντας· ΕΙΝΑΙ ΓΑΡ ΚΑΙ ΕΝΤΑΤΟΘΑ ΘΕΟΥΣ. Ούτω και προς την ζητησιν περι εκαστε των ζων προσιεναι δει μη δυσωπημενον, ως εν απασιν οντος φυσικη και καλη· το γαρ μη τυχοντως, αλλ' ενεκα τινος εν τοις της φυσεως εργοις εστι, και μαλιστα. Edit. Du Val, tom. i. p. 975. P. 314.

The description of the temple is very interesting; and the contemplation of the object of adoration placed in it excites the historian's admiration. It is not, however, a blind admiration or indiscriminate praise; for he shows, as usual, an acute and accurate taste. His delineation of the human form, in its most perfect state, is very correct. It is a miniature nevertheless, though nicely finished\*; and the subsequent reflexions are judicious and interesting. We regret greatly that we have not room to add them. Of the bulk of these idols we shall give some idea, by transcribing a short passage.

‘ Sed ut revertamur ad historiam nostram primam; dicimus idola hæc, multa licet fuerint, tempus diffregisse, (paucissima si excipias) in fragmenta, et in frusta disjecisse. Vidi quidem ex iis magnum, cujus e latere excisus sit lapis molaris, diametro sua cubitos duos æquans: in ejus tamen figura haud apparebat notabilis deformitas, neque mutatio manifesta. Vidi quoque idolum, cujus inter pedes esset idolum, conjunctum cum eo, parvulumque, tanquam filius, si ad illud comparetur; nihilo tamen minus hominem æquabat vel longissimum: quin tanta ei inerat elegantia et pulchritudo, ut illud aspiciens quivis desiderio afficeretur, nec quidem satiaretur aspiciendo.’ P. 139.

The causes of the destruction of the idols are (from the author's account) suspicions of hidden treasures; and every crevice in a mountain, every uncommon appearance in a building, has led to a minute and particular examination. We know that

\* Dr. White supposes that Abdollariph is warmer in his praise of the Egyptian statuary, because the Mahometans admitted not of any representation of the human or any other figure. But we think this by no means the case, as he describes the former so very accurately and minutely.



the instruments which a person employed during life were usually in Egypt buried with the dead; but with the relation of these are mixed some idle tales, wholly unworthy of the historian's notice. Among the mummies, besides the birds, &c. generally known to be embalmed, we find a calf (probably a young Apis), and some small fishes called *siri*, perhaps from some fancied connexion with the dog-star, *seir*. Some other forms and kinds of mummies are described, but not of sufficient consequence to detail. Among the notes we observe a valuable and judicious abstract of Egyptian history; yet, we suspect, *non omnibus numeris absolute*.—We find that we must return to this work on another occasion; and we shall then give a greater number of our specimens in English.

(To be continued.)

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ART. II.—*The Metaphysics of Aristotle, translated from the Greek; with copious Notes, in which the Pythagoric and Platonic Dogmas respecting Numbers and Ideas are unfolded from ancient Sources. To which is added, a Dissertation on Nullities and diverging Series; in which the Conclusions of the greatest modern Mathematicians on this Subject are shown to be erroneous, the Nature of infinitely small Quantities is explained, and the TO 'EN, or THE ONE of the Pythagoreans and Platonists, so often alluded to by Aristotle in this Work, is elucidated. By Thomas Taylor. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. White. 1801.*

WE find it no easy task to convey a proper idea of this work. To immerse in the metaphysical subtilties of Aristotle, or even to engage, at any length, in several of the disputed questions suggested in the introduction and the notes, would fill a volume of no small magnitude. To bring these points also to the level of general readers, would greatly increase the labour, and add to the bulk of the article; which, after all the pains bestowed, might be little regarded by those for whom it would thus be designed. To hasten over the work by a short general character, would be equally unjust and injurious to the translator, whose labours are indeed vast, and whose errors are few. If indeed we except a too great veneration for the Stagirite, —a veneration scarcely short of a conviction of his infallibility, and which occasionally leads him to language and remarks that have excited sneers from those whose learning and talents were infinitely inferior to his own,—we scarcely find any thing materially faulty. If we remark that his translation, from too close a copy of the mysterious precision and involved obscurity of his original, is at times scarcely intelligible, it may be properly replied, that in this he only follows his prototype, and conveys an idea of

the manner as well as the substance of the work: nor do we perceive how a faithful view of the former could be otherwise conveyed at all. The terse energetic language of Aristotle could scarcely be rendered by prolix paraphrase; and his bold precision would be lost in a crowd of words.

We have more than once had occasion to meet some of the works of the Stagirite in an English dress, particularly in the translations of Dr. Gillies and the rival versions of Mr. Twining and Mr. Pye; and have then enlarged on his wonderfully comprehensive talents, the strength and depth of his conceptions, and the almost unbounded extent of his knowledge. Voluminous as his works are, they are rather apophthegms than treatises: they are the texts, which contain in a few lines what may be extended to volumes. Such is also the extent of his knowledge, that the selection of what he has written in natural history and natural philosophy would surprise a modern inquirer, and almost lead him to consider that science, in the early ages, had been supernaturally revealed. Mr. Taylor's character of Aristotle is judicious and comprehensive. We scarcely think the encomium too warm, except perhaps in the conclusion of the first paragraph, where the deluge and conflagration are images somewhat too strong and scarcely applicable.

‘ Among the prodigies of genius who have largely benefited mankind by disseminating philosophy, Aristotle maintains a very distinguished rank. When we consider that he was not only well acquainted with every science, as his works abundantly evince, but that he wrote on almost every subject which is comprehended in the circle of human knowledge, and this with matchless accuracy and skill, we know not which to admire most, the penetration or extent of his mind. For capacious indeed must that mind have been which embraced the vast orb of existence, and left nothing unexplored in the heavens or the earth, and penetrating that genius which arrived at the luminous boundaries of human knowledge, and rendered them accessible to others. With a bold, yet not impious hand, he appears to have withdrawn the awful veil of nature herself, to have detected her most secret mysteries, and ranged through every part of her variegated dominions. In short, he seems to have possessed and to have exercised the power of reasoning in the greatest perfection possible to man; and such of his works as have escaped the ravages of time will ever be considered by the genuine lovers of science, as treasures which from their singular excellence are destined to perish in no less a catastrophe than that of a deluge or general conflagration.

‘ But of all his works, the following, which is evidently from the nature of it the most sublime, perhaps no less excels in that accuracy of diction, skilfulness of arrangement, and fecundity of conception, for which the Stagirite is every where so remarkable; but, at the same time, it is equally distinguished from the rest by the profound obscurity in which the meaning of the greater part of it is involved.’ P. i.



Mr. Taylor next enumerates the works of Aristotle, dividing them into theoretic, practical, or instrumental. We do not greatly approve of this division, nor of the arrangement of the works under each head. The philosophical parts are by no means theoretic or contemplative; nor is the art of rhetoric, properly speaking, instrumental.

‘The end of Aristotle’s moral philosophy is perfection through the virtues, and the end of his contemplative philosophy an union with the one principle of all things: for he scientifically knew and unfolded this principle, as is evident from the twelfth book of the following work, in which he clearly pronounces that the domination of many is not good. The common end, however, both of his moral and contemplative philosophy, which man ought to pursue, is the last and most perfect felicity of which our nature is capable; and at the end of his *Nicomachean Ethics* he testifies that he who arrives at this felicity ought not to be called a man but a god. All the works of the philosopher lead us to the attainment of this end: for some of them unfold to us the art of demonstration; others, that we may become virtuous, instruct us in morals; and lastly, others lead us to the knowledge of natural things, and afterwards to those luminous beings which are placed above nature.’ p. iii.

If the notes or the introduction offer a single subject, it is the *ONE*, centring every thing in the first great cause; for by the ‘*one*’ is evidently meant, by the Pythagoreans, the principle and source of all—the Deity; and the sublimity of this conception, the awful reverence with which the subject is introduced, the respect and hesitation with which the *One* is mentioned, strongly impress us with the idea of the true piety of the earliest philosophic sects. It is the system, we know, of Pythagoras, who brought it from Chaldea, the seat of early and true religion. Of the language of Aristotle we have already spoken. It indeed cannot be praised too highly by the proficient in his philosophy; but it will give no little trouble to the student. Perhaps Mr. Taylor’s account of it, though somewhat partaking of the obscurity of his author, is correct and characteristic.

‘With respect to his diction, it is of that kind that the words may adhere to the sense and the sense to the words; a mode of writing both intellectual and admirably adapted to the profundity of his conceptions: for he either immediately gives a solution to a doubt, or, connecting many doubts, he briefly solves all of them by one and the same solution. He is likewise never willing to deviate from evidence, which being produced either by intellect or sense, he especially adduces and celebrates the latter when he disputes with those who in every thing consider sense as the standard of truth. Hence, there is such an irresistible strength in his demonstrations, that, when he cannot persuade by assumptions not rashly introduced, he at least procures assent by the force of necessity.

‘This, too, is peculiar to Aristotle, that he was never willing to depart from nature, but even contemplated things which transcend

nature through a natural habit and knowledge; just as, on the contrary, the divine Plato, after the manner of the Pythagoreans, contemplated whatever is natural, so far as it partakes of that which is divine and above nature: so that the former considered theology physically, and the latter physics theologically. He likewise never employs fables and enigmas, and never ascends into the marvellous and the mystic, but adopts obscurity as a substitute for every other veil, and involved mode of writing; the reason of which we proposed to investigate, as the fourth object of inquiry.' P. iii.

The Stagirite, it is remarked, is designedly obscure, instead of veiling science in the garb of fable and enigma; for the latter may admit of some interpretation, which, if false, will mislead and preclude farther inquiry. We have striking instances of this in some of the Pythagorean precepts, particularly the golden thigh, the ridicule of Lucian, and the nut not hitherto cracked, *abstine a fabis*. We have little doubt that important precepts were couched under each distinct head, though at present unfathomable.

Mr. Taylor next explains the qualifications which are requisite for his reader, strangely called 'auditor.' These are, 'a naturally good disposition, a penetrating sagacity, and an ardent love of truth.' Let no others enter the sacred temple!—Penetrating sagacity we allow to be very requisite; and though the other qualities are equally commendable, we do not fully see their application in a student of Aristotle's *Metaphysics*. It will require *peculiar* acuteness to perceive that there are objects *more real* than those of *sense*, to elevate the mental eye to the principles of things, and gaze on their dazzling splendor.

'The design of Aristotle in this work is to lead us from forms merged in, or inseparable from, matter, to those forms which are entirely immaterial, and which, in his own words, are the most luminous of all things. But he considers these forms so far only as they are beings; or, in other words, so far as they are the progeny of one first being, and are characterised by essence. Nothing, therefore, is discussed in this work pertaining to will or appetite, or any thing of this kind, because these are vital powers; nor to sensation, the dianoëtic energy and intelligence, because these are the properties of gnostic natures. Hence, we shall find that the *Metaphysics* of Aristotle unfold all that is comprehended in the great orb of being, so far as every thing which this orb contains is stamped as it were with the idiom of its source. The same thing is likewise effected by Plato in his *Parmenides*; but, as we have before observed, more theologically, conformably to the genius of his philosophy, which always considers nature so far as she is suspended from divinity. The *Metaphysics* of Aristotle are, therefore, the same with the most scientific dialectic of Plato, of which the *Parmenides* of that philosopher is a most beautiful specimen, with this difference only, that in the former the physical, and in the latter the theological, character predominates.' P. v.



We shall not follow Mr. Taylor in his explanation of the employment of scientific dialectics and their different energies. Indeed we fear that we could not easily render it intelligible. There is an error in all Mr. Taylor's explanations, that we must point out. Impressed with the idea, not indeed in every instance a clear one, he is often unhappy in his choice of words, and seems studiously to prefer the language of the schools, when he might render the subject much more explicit by adopting common terms. Absorbed also in intellectual energies, he treats experimental philosophy somewhat disrespectfully.

The arrangement of the books is that published by Aldus and Bessarion, adopted by the best of Aristotle's interpreters. To Dr. Gillies, who proposed a different arrangement, Mr. Taylor is not very complaisant, and points out the inconsistencies which would result from the alteration, if adopted; while, in another place, he accuses him of misinterpreting the Stagirite. Indeed Dr. Gillies's translations are occasionally too diffuse, and, in the passages quoted by Mr. Taylor, somewhat inaccurate.

Our critic next analyses the Metaphysics of Aristotle: but this part is too long to be transcribed; and it is not easy to abridge it. The defence of Aristotle, respecting the first 'mover,' is ingenious, but not very satisfactory. That which is generated introduces, he remarks, a temporal beginning of generation. This may be admitted, with some limitations, as the first, though not the first, *cause*. If, however, these be 'demonstrated' to be 'perpetual,' they can have no cause, because nothing can be antecedent. We shall select the whole passage, without any farther comment\*.

'It has also been said, though unjustly, that, according to Aristotle, the first mover, whom he calls intellect, eternity, and God, is only the final, but not the effective cause of the world. That the first mover is, however, according to Aristotle, an effective cause, is evident from what he says in the second book of his Physical Auscultations, in the division of causes; for he there denominates an effective cause to be that whence the principle of motion is derived; and again, that whence the first principle of mutation or rest originates. Thus, for instance, says he, he who consults is a cause, and a father of his son, and, in short, that which makes of that which is made. In the first also of his books De Cælo, he says, "that neither God nor Nature produces any thing in vain;" and in another part of the same book he asserts, "that eternity from always subsisting receives the appellation of immortal and divine, whence also being and life are imparted to other things, to some more accurately,

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\* We have generally thought Aristotle inconsistent on this subject;—whether designedly so, those best acquainted with his writings will decide. The whole is certainly left in great obscurity: and we ought to add, that the book principally referred to in the passage here cited, ΠΕΡΙ ΘΑΥΜΑΣΙΩΝ ΑΝΥΣΤΑΤΩΝ, is among the most questionable of those attributed to this great philosopher.

and to others more obscurely." In the first book, likewise, of his *Metaphysics*, praising Anaxagoras, and prior to him Hermotimus, as not only admitting material causes of the universe, but contemplating intellect as the effective and final cause, he observes as follows: "He, therefore, who asserted that as in animals, so also in nature, there is a certain intellect, which is the cause both of the world and of all order, will appear like one sober, when compared with those ancients that spoke rashly." And shortly after he adds, "Those, therefore, who entertained this opinion, together with establishing a principle of things, which is the cause of their subsisting in a beautiful manner, established also a principle which is the cause of motion to things."

'Should it be asked why Aristotle does not so openly call God an effective as he does a final cause, we reply with Simplicius, that since that which makes, makes that which is generated, and that which is generated at the same time introduces a temporal beginning of generation, hence he refuses to call the celestial bodies, which he demonstrates to be perpetual, generated, though he often and clearly denominates the cause of them an effective cause. And, perhaps, if some one should assert that the terms generator and maker are properly adapted to things in generation and corruption, because they introduce a partial time, he will employ different appellations when speaking of things perpetual. Aristotle, indeed, does not refuse to call motion perpetual, though its very being consists (*ἐν τῷ γίνεσθαι*) in generation, or becoming to be; but he is unwilling to say that it has a perpetual generation, because that which is generated appears not to have had a prior subsistence, and will afterwards be corrupted.' P. xxx.

We shall now turn to what Mr. Taylor says of his own translation.

'In translating the *Metaphysics* of Aristotle (for it is now time to speak of the following translation) I have endeavoured as much as possible to give the literal meaning of every sentence, without paraphrasing what I conceived to be the sense of my author, or expanding what might appear to be too concise. The studied obscurity indeed of Aristotle's diction in this work is perhaps without a parallel in any ancient or modern writer. Not daring, therefore, to impose on the reader by presenting him with my conceptions as those of the Stagirite, nor presuming to measure that mighty genius by my own, I have in general, after giving the most faithful translation in my power of dubious passages, either explained them by notes, or left them to the decision of the reader: for as I write, not with any design of procuring the fleeting and contemptible applause of the day, but with an eye to the approbation of more equitable posterity, I have endeavoured by acting the part of a faithful translator to procure for the following copy a duration co-extended with that of the original.' P. xli.

Dr. Gillies asserted, in the introduction to his translation of Aristotle's '*Ethics and Politics* \*', that he 'had miserably

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\* Noticed in our Review, vol. 24, p. 43, New Arr.



mis-spent his time in examining Aristotle's numerous commentators—Greek, Arabic, and Latin.' This was not likely to conciliate Mr. Taylor, who, next to Aristotle himself, adores the commentators who have written in the first of these languages, and has filled his notes with translations from the best of them. The assertion is of course treated with great indignation.—*Non nostrum est, &c.*

In our account of the work hitherto given, we have afforded sufficient foundation to enable the reader to judge of Mr. Taylor's merits. If a veneration of his author be requisite to enable a translator to give an adequate and spirited version; if close and repeated study can alone render him sufficiently conversant with the scope and meaning of his original; Mr. Taylor must be amply qualified for the task. We have not blamed him in either respect. Yet his translation is adapted for the esoterics rather than the exoterics; and it appears to us to be best fitted for those who want it least.

The notes, we have said, are chiefly selected from Aristotle's best commentators; nor, from their connexion with the text, and with trains of reasoning too long to be taken up in this place, can we give any adequate view of them. They are often explanatory, and, in many instances, a breviary of commentaries.

The dissertation on infinite series is a truly curious paper; and, what may appear surprising, it is designed to illustrate the TO 'EN, or 'THE ONE of the Pythagoreans and Platonists.' The principal mathematical point which the author attempts to establish, is, that the sum of the neutral series  $1 + 1 - 1 + \&c.$  *ad infinitum*, is equal to 0; because Euler observes, if we stop at  $-1$ , the series gives 0; if at  $+1$ , it gives 1. It is evident, therefore, adds our author, that the sum must be between both, viz.  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Why, however, it should be 1, divided by 2, rather than 0, divided by 2, we are not told. Indeed, to every person conversant with the summation of series, this determination is unfounded. We must confess, notwithstanding, that the application of these doctrines is not sufficient to induce us to enlarge on them; nor is the nature of the *One* to be illustrated by negations. Our author must, however, be permitted to speak for himself. We hope the reader will excuse the extract from Proclus, as too long for our limits.

'First then, we have demonstrated that infinitely small quantities are negations of infinite multitude; and a negation of all multitude is that which characterises *the one*, as is evident from the first hypothesis of the Parmenides of Plato. As all finite quantities likewise may be considered as consisting of infinite series of infinitely small quantities, it follows that infinite negations of multitude may be said to constitute all finite quantity. Admirable, therefore, is the nature of negation, as is beautifully shown by Proclus in the following extract from the fifth book of his most excellent MS. Commentary on the

Parmenides; for the length of which the intelligent reader will, I am persuaded, require no apology.' P. 459.

' Since too, infinitely small quantities,—which, from what has been said, are evidently analogous to the superessential unities, of which we have spoken so largely in note to p. 286, twelfth book, and the additional notes,—since, I say, they subsist infinitely in the monad, and may be considered as constituting the very nature of it,—hence, an infinitely small quantity, or *the one*, is superior to the monad; for infinitely small quantities compose, but are not composed from, the monad. And hence we see, that there is an evident distinction between *the one* and the monad, which, as we have observed, was one of the dogmas of the Pythagoreans. All number, too, is in like manner full of the nature of *the one*, or the infinitely small; for any number divided by an infinitely small quantity produces an infinite series.

' Again: when a finite quantity is subtracted from itself, an infinitely small quantity may be considered as the remainder. Thus,  $a$  subtracted from  $a$  is  $a - a$ , which conspicuously shows us as in an image, that when all multitude is taken away from beings, *the one* still remains: for numbers are images of beings, and an infinitely small quantity of *the one*.' P. 465.

On the whole, this is a work of infinite labour, and of very superior learning; yet, we think, of labour misemployed, and of learning not properly applied. Those, as we have said, can only appreciate either, who will have little occasion for any version. As there may be many, however, who, like lord Monboddo, and perhaps our author, see little merit in modern labours and modern discoveries, who think the Principia of Newton, or the discoveries of Herschel, mere trifles, when compared to the disquisitions on essences and energies either doxastic or dia-noëtic, we cannot regret that such investigations are generally diffused. To the initiated, they will be, in any form, interesting. To the speculative inquirer, who may not be able to explore the originals—'*antiquos accedere fontes*,' they will show what was the learning which engaged the ancient metaphysicians; which was once, and by some is still called, science. They must not however rashly decide. Even in these abstruse and apparently inexplicable disquisitions, there is much valuable matter, conveyed in a form at once accurate, concise, and comprehensive—many valuable materials on subjects most interesting and important to human beings, who would look to other regions and other worlds, when this visible diurnal sphere shall be at an end. For these reasons, we are, on the whole, pleased with this work, and with the author's information, that, under the patronage of a nobleman of high rank, we may expect a complete translation of the works of Plato in a handsome form. The present appears under the auspices of Mr. William and Mr. George Meredith. The nobleman referred to, is, we understand, the duke of Norfolk.



**ART. III.**—*The Works of James Harris, Esq. with an Account of his Life and Character, by his Son the Earl of Malmesbury.*  
2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Wingrave. 1801.

**SINCE** the general approbation of the learned has continued for many years to sanction the labours of Mr. Harris, it is no longer the time for praise or censure. Yet, since criticism has not been wholly asleep, and applause has not assumed the guise of indiscriminate adulation, we may perhaps add, that, with much to admire, subsequent inquirers have discovered some little errors which the best may commit, and of which the wisest need not be ashamed. To pursue these would now be useless; and indeed our chief object, in the present article, is the life of the very amiable and respectable author.

The life of Mr. Harris, by his son lord Malmesbury, is written with all the warmth of affection, which the virtues and tenderness of a father could inspire, conjoined with the laudable pride of being able to claim such a sire as his own. Mr. Harris was not a recluse or a sour student. After pursuing philosophy with the Peripatetics and the Stoics,—though the former appear to have been his chief favourites,—he would join the gay world in lively social conversation, animate it with sprightly remarks, convey his instructive information with judgement and delicacy, and join in the music whose powers he had augmented by his taste and his selections. He was for many years in parliament, and in several official situations. During the last six years he was secretary and comptroller to the queen. He died in 1780, at the age of seventy-two. His epitaph, written with singular elegance, we shall subjoin.

• M. S.

Jacobi Harris Sarisburiensis,

Viri boni, et docti,

Græcarum Literarum præcipue periti,

Cujus Opera accuratissima

De Artibus elegantioribus

De Grammaticâ, de Logicâ, de Ethice,

Stylo brevi, limato, simplici,

Sui More Aristotelis

Conscripta,

Posteris laudabunt ultimi.

Studiis severioribus addictus,

Communis tamen vitæ officia,

Et omnia Patris, Mariti,

Civis, Senatoris munia,

Et implevit et ornavit.

Obiit XXII. Die Decembris, M,DCC,LXXX.

Anno, Etatis LXXII.

• Above this inscription, a female figure of Philosophy is repre-

sented, holding over a medallion of my father a scroll, with the following inscription :

‘Τὸ φρονεῖν

Μονὸν ἀγαθόν·

Τὸ δ' ἀφρονεῖν

Κακόν.’ Vol. ii. p. xxii.

Mr. Harris was bred to the law, as a part of an ornamental, perhaps useful, education; but his father dying in his twenty-fourth year, he followed ‘the strong and decided bent of his mind,’ in pursuing the study of the Greek and Latin classics. This study he followed with great avidity in his retirement at Salisbury; but, after many years, he first attended to the works of Aristotle, having imbibed the usual prejudices against him. His three treatises were published in 1744; and his *Hermes* in 1751. The subject of the latter was suggested by the *Minerva* of Sanctius, a work which he always held in the highest esteem.

‘From the period of his marriage’ (1745) ‘until the year 1761, my father continued to live entirely at Salisbury, except in the summer, when he sometimes retired to his house at Durnford, near that city. It was there that he found himself most free from the interruption of business and of company, and at leisure to compose the chief part of those works which were the result of his study at other seasons. His time was divided between the care of his family, in which he placed his chief happiness, his literary pursuits, and the society of his friends and neighbours, with whom he kept up a constant and cheerful intercourse. The superior taste and skill which he possessed in music, and his extreme fondness for hearing it, led him to attend to its cultivation in his native place with uncommon pains and success; insomuch that, under his auspices, not only the annual musical festival in Salisbury flourished beyond most institutions of the kind, but even the ordinary subscription-concerts were carried on, by his assistance and directions, with a spirit and effect seldom equalled out of the metropolis. Many of the beautiful selections made from the best Italian and German composers for these festivals and concerts, and adapted by my father, sometimes to words selected from Scripture, or from Milton’s *Paradise Lost*, sometimes to compositions of his own, have survived the occasions on which they were first produced, and are still in great estimation. Two volumes of these selections have been lately published by Mr. Corfe, organist of Salisbury cathedral; the rest remain in manuscript in possession of my family. His own house, in the mean time, was the frequent scene of social and musical meetings; and I think I do not hazard too much in saying, that he contributed, both by his own conversation, and by the company which he often assembled at his house from various parts, to refine and improve the taste and manners of the place in which he resided.’ Vol. i. p. xv.

The ‘*Philosophical Arrangements*’ appeared in 1775; and the *Philological Inquiries*, one of the most varied and pleasing of



our author's productions, in 1781. Lord Malmesbury considers it only as 'a retrospective view of those studies which exercised his mind in the full vigor of his life, excepting that he regards it as a monument of affection to some of his most intimate friends \*.' Perhaps it may be called collections from his common-place book. It, however, contains many interesting facts, and some valuable information. The Philosophical Arrangements were noticed in our 40th volume, O. S.; and we there pointed out one great object of the author 'to establish the dignity of mind, and its objects, in opposition to the doctrines of chance, fatality, and materialism—doctrines which have sprung up in many parts of Europe, from the corruption and misinterpretation of the mechanical philosophy.' Vol. xi. p. 8.—The Philological Inquiries were noticed in our volumes 51 and 52.

Lord Malmesbury adds what he calls some farther particulars concerning his father's character, which we shall transcribe.

'The distinction by which he was most generally known, while living, and by which he is likely to survive to posterity, is that of a man of learning. His profound knowledge of Greek, which he applied more successfully, perhaps, than any modern writer has done, to the study and explanation of ancient philosophy, arose from an early and intimate acquaintance with the excellent poets and historians in that language. They, and the best writers of the Augustan age, were his constant and never-failing recreation. By his familiarity with them, he was enabled to enliven and to illustrate his deeper and more abstruse speculations, as every page almost of these volumes will abundantly testify. But his attainments were not confined to ancient philosophy, and classical learning. He possessed likewise a general knowledge of modern history, with a very distinguishing taste in the fine arts, in one of which, as before observed, he was an eminent proficient. His singular industry empowered him to make these various acquisitions, without neglecting any of the duties which he owed to his family, his friends, or his country. I am in possession of such proofs, besides those already given to the public, of my father's laborious study and reflexion, as, I apprehend, are very rarely to be met with. Not only was he accustomed, through a long series of years, to make copious extracts from the different books which he read, and to write critical remarks and conjectures on many of the passages extracted, but he was also in the habit of regularly committing to writing such reflexions as arose out of his study, which evince a mind carefully disciplined, and anxiously bent on the attainment of self-knowledge, and self-government. And yet, though habituated to deep thinking and laborious reading, he was generally cheerful, even to playfulness. There was no pedantry in

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\* It is singular that this expression occurs at the conclusion of our second article in vol. 52, O. S. Whence arises the coincidence? Is it borrowed by Lord Malmesbury, or originally written by him?

his manners or conversation, nor was he ever seen either to display his learning with ostentation, or to treat with slight or superciliousness those less informed than himself. He rather sought to make them appear partakers of what he knew, than to mortify them by a parade of his own superiority. Nor had he any of that miserable fastidiousness about him which too often disgraces men of learning, and prevents their being amused or interested, at least their choosing to appear so, by common performances and common events.

‘ It was with him a maxim, that the most difficult, and infinitely the preferable, sort of criticism, both in literature and in the arts, was that which consists in finding out beauties, rather than defects; and although he certainly wanted not judgment to distinguish and to prefer superior excellence of any kind, he was too reasonable to expect it should very often occur, and too wise to allow himself to be disgusted at common weakness or imperfection. He thought, indeed, that the very attempt to please, however it might fall short of its aim, deserved some return of thanks, some degree of approbation; and that to endeavour at being pleased by such efforts, was due to justice, to good-nature, and to good sense.

‘ Far at the same time from that presumptuous conceit which is solicitous about mending others, and that moroseness which feeds its own pride by dealing in general censure, he cultivated to the utmost that great moral wisdom, by which we are made humane, gentle, and forgiving; thankful for the blessings of life, acquiescent in the afflictions we endure, and submissive to all the dispensations of Providence. He detested the gloom of superstition, and the persecuting spirit by which it is so often accompanied; but he abhorred still more the baneful and destructive system of modern philosophy; and from his early solicitude to inspire me with a hatred of it, it would almost seem that he foresaw its alarming approach and fatal progress. There is no obligation which I acknowledge with more thankfulness; none that I shall more anxiously endeavour to confer upon my own children, from a thorough conviction of its value and importance.

‘ My father’s affection to every part of his family was exemplary and uniform. As a husband, a parent, a master, he was ever kind and indulgent; and it deserves to be mentioned to his honour, that he thought it no interruption of his graver occupations, himself to instruct his daughters, by exercising them daily both in reading and composition, and writing essays for their improvement, during many of their younger years. No man was a better judge of what belonged to female education, and the elegant accomplishments of the sex, or more disposed to set a high value upon them. But he had infinitely more at heart, that his children should be early habituated to the practice of religion and morality, and deeply impressed with their true principles. To promote this desirable end, he was assiduous both by instruction and example; being himself a constant attendant upon public worship, and enforcing that great duty upon every part of his family. The deep sense of moral and religious obligation which was habitual to him, and those benevolent feelings which were so great a happiness to his family and friends,



had the same powerful influence over his public, as his private life. He had an ardent zeal for the prosperity of his country, whose real interests he well understood; and in his parliamentary conduct he proved himself a warm friend to the genuine principles of religious and civil liberty, as well as a firm supporter of every branch of our admirable constitution.' Vol. i. p. xxiii.

Such is the life of a revered father by an affectionate son!—of an amiable, worthy, and learned man, from a writer best able to appreciate his talents and admire his virtues! It has by some been thought too prolix, and occasionally egotical; but we have perused it repeatedly, and are convinced that the reader will not easily assent to such a charge. It has our full and unqualified approbation.

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ART. IV.—*Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1801. Vol. XIX. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robson. 1801.*

AS we have always wished well to this society, and constantly commended the liberal and patriotic views with which it has conducted itself, we observe with pleasure its increasing prosperity. The extending of its premiums to Ireland is a measure which merits our warmest praises; and this well-meant liberality has been received by the Dublin society with cordiality and gratitude. The nineteenth volume is illustrated with a plate of Owen Salusbury Brereton, Esquire, one of its late vice-presidents; and the life of this gentleman is detailed in the preface, without the meanness of fulsome adulation, or those meretricious ornaments still common in a neighbouring nation; and which, with other novelties, seem to gain ground in this. Mr. Brereton himself might have read his own biography, as here detailed, without a blush, and with a consciousness of his truly deserving the commendations which it contains. The rest of the preface offers a brief and comprehensive abstract of the contents of the volume.—Mr. Barry's explanatory account of the alterations made in the pictures, which adorn the society's great room, follows. It is ingenious, but replete with vanity and egotism.

The premiums have been revised with great care; and many trifling ones are omitted. Some still lie open, as the period for which they were offered is not concluded. The new ones we shall notice particularly. Of these, the first (here marked the 14th) is entitled 'Comparative Tillage;' and its object is to ascertain the advantages of trench-ploughing, analogous to

trenching among gardeners, above the repeated ploughing and harrowing generally employed. The second (No. 22) respects the 'Rotation of Crops,' designed for those who shall cultivate the greatest quantity of land with winter tares, turnips, and wheat, in succession; and applying the two former to the rearing, supporting, and fattening cattle and sheep. The three next, viz. Nos. 28, 30, and 31, are designed to reward the best methods of preserving the drum-headed cabbages, carrots, parsnips, beets, or potatoes—particularly during the months of February, March, and April—so that they may be fit for supporting cattle, or for the table. The ensuing (No. 44) is for a more effectual and expeditious threshing machine: and the following new premium is for preparing tallow so as to burn clear with wicks as small as wax candles, at a less expense than spermaceti candles. The 72d premium is for extracting the *tannin* from oak-bark, &c.; the 73d and 74th, for a red and a green colour, more durable, cheap, and expeditious, than those commonly employed, for the use of calico-printers; the 77th, for the preparation of an artificial ultramarine; the 98th, for the best stroke-engraving published in 1801; 100th and 102d, for chintz and copper-plate patterns for calico-printers; the 103d, for the best engravings on wood, capable of being worked with letter-press; 105th, for the best drapery figure cast in bronze; 125th, for an improved ventilation of hospitals and workhouses; 148th, &c. for the cultivation of hemp in Upper and Lower Canada; the 160th, &c. for curing herrings (white herrings) by the Dutch method. It will be obvious that many of these objects are truly important, though some of them appear trifling. Together they constitute, however, the only new objects.

The first communication in the class of agriculture relates to the plantation of English elms by Mr. Vernon of Hilton-park. The plantations are extensive, and the trees thriving. This claim is followed by one from Mr. Selby of Orford-castle, Kent, for the plantation of osiers on wet, and otherwise barren, ground. All these attempts, however, disappear, in comparison with Mr. Johnes's plantations at Hafod in Cardiganshire. He has made the barren wastes of that part of Wales the most beautiful spots in Europe, by very extensive and judicious planting. From October 1795 to April 1801, he has planted upwards of two millions of trees, of which somewhat more than half are larches. His dairy is also considerably improved, and his sale of cheese and butter annually increasing to a great amount.—Mr. Brown's account of the management of spring wheat is peculiarly interesting in a climate so variable as ours. The result of his experience we shall transcribe. We believe his trials are confirmed by the experience of farmers in many English counties.



• The inferences which may be drawn from the above statement, are,

• First, That wheat may be sown with advantage in the spring months, till the middle of March, if the weather is then dry, the land in good condition, and the succeeding summer moderately warm.

• Secondly, That under the above circumstances, the period of harvest is not retarded above ten days by the late sowing, especially in favourable seasons.

• Thirdly, That the grain produced from spring crops of wheat is equally good in quality, as that sown in the autumn and winter months.' p. 85.

The Courland method of making hay is interesting in many respects. To render hay perfect, some fermentation must necessarily take place, as is evident from the smell of acetous æther in the best hay: but, when put together hastily, the fermentation is too rapid; and the stacks, as is well known, sometimes take fire. The Courland method consists in checking the fermentation, by treading the cocks closely while the grass is but partly dried; and by spreading the grass again on the ground when the fermentation has begun. It is afterwards cocked, and may be kept in the cocks for many days, if the weather be uncertain.

A new method of housing corn in wet weather is also described by Mr. Palmer. It depends on threshing the corn immediately on its being cut, and drying it on a malt-kiln. His threshing machine appears to be improved, and to answer very well.—Mr. Fogg of Lancashire has very properly been rewarded for inclosing and improving some very barren waste land at Bolton in the Moors in Lancashire. He propagates potatoes by cutting out the eyes with a cheese-trier; and thinks the young plants equally vigorous and thriving with those planted in the usual way.

The duke of Bridgewater's drain-plough appears to be a most valuable invention. It is adapted for surface draining, and is said to succeed very well, as it destroys but little herbage; and no loss of land arises from the small drains, as the natural grasses appear early in the spring.—Mr. Knight's drill-machine for sowing turnips seems useful, as it makes the furrow, drops the seed, and again covers it by one operation. The same author furnishes some judicious remarks on the blights of fruit-trees. These arise from aphides; and Mr. Knight thinks, for some good reasons assigned, that the honey-dew is the production of these insects. They may be destroyed by suspending a canvas against the tree, and introducing under it the smoke of tobacco. Parasitical plants also occasion blights. These are the mildew, and a brown kind of the same genus, mucor; the red and white mould on hops; and the rubigo of wheat. The

most extensive causes of blights, however, are the variations of our climate, particularly sharp cold, with succeeding warm or wet weather. Our author advises us to shelter the tree with a double or triple net. The effects usually attributed to lightning, he thinks, may be owing to the excessive heat which generally accompanies it. Some judicious remarks on pruning and thinning the bearing wood are subjoined.

Mr. Lester's 'cultivator' is an instrument designed to pulverise tenacious soils, and must be employed in the driest seasons.—Whatever becomes of the question respecting the drill and broad-cast sowing in general, Mr. Munnings seems to have shown that, for turnips, the former method is preferable. His machine is simple, and the seed is immediately covered. With a one-horse plough he moulds up the turnips in the manner of 'two-furrow' work, which he thinks will protect the young plants; and in this way the ground may be easily weeded. It is a neat scientific method, and promises, we think, to succeed.—Mr. Eccleston's peat-auger makes a drain by cutting out a column of peat in proportion to its diameter; and this drain is not so soon obstructed by the pressure of the surrounding water. Why are not attempts made to work the auger in every kind of boring by machinery? It would facilitate the labour, and shorten the time employed. We have seen the model of a very useful machine for this purpose.

A method of rendering barren soils productive, by planting, is exemplified by Mr. Ashton, near Liverpool, who has planted 133 acres of moor waste land near the forest of Delamere, in the county of Chester. The trees planted are about 487,000, and nearly one-half of these are Scotch firs. Of oaks he has planted only 16,200.

Mr. Jones's communication respecting moles is highly curious. It relates to the destruction of the grubs of cockchafers by moles, which entirely destroy them; and contains some valuable facts respecting the latter.

'Some notice of the habits of moles may be acceptable to the society, as it has been said "that they penetrate deep into the earth, in dry weather; rarely quit their subterraneous dwellings, and have few enemies;"—and "that they do great mischief in gardens and corn-grounds."

'I have always found that in hay and pasture grounds, as soon as the grass is high enough to cover them, they run upon the surface, where they find their food in the numerous caterpillars and insects which in the early part of the summer crawl out of the earth; and they continue above ground till the harvest. They are frequently cut by the scythe; and I have seen them at various times come out of deep hay grass into places recently mown, and, perceiving their exposure, endeavour to conceal themselves in the shorn grass.



‘ I have also often seen moles on very close mown grass, and bare spots in pasture land, plunge, when alarmed, among the roots; following their path (which was discernible by the heaving of the surface), I have forced them out occasionally, to try the depth of the covering, which was only a few shreds of roots.

‘ There are two circumstances that may oblige moles sometimes to penetrate deeply:—disturbed soils in summer, such as in gardens; and ploughed light lands, where the moles delve in pursuit of worms; and, in their course, they must unroot and destroy some plants; but a vigilant gardener and husbandman will prevent much damage.

‘ The other cause of their digging deep is frost, which they avoid, or it would kill them. I have found them in winter, in peat soil, two and three feet below the surface; and, in the hard frost of 1794-5 (cutting deep trenches to separate grounds), I found moles several mornings, that had worked through and fallen into the trenches, frozen to death.

‘ Their summer emersion is proved by the birds of prey: they destroy great numbers of moles. This year there were taken out of one kite’s nest twenty-two moles, and out of another fifteen, some of which were putrid; besides many frogs and unfledged birds.

‘ The rapacity of the kites shews that they are destructive enemies to the moles, which, if moles are serviceable to man, should be known, that he may stay his arm.

‘ Moles are frequently found dead upon the grass in summer, with marks of having been bitten, as if to suck their blood, but with no part of their bodies consumed. This, I suppose, is done by weasels; and the following (not very common) occurrence, which happened in the summer of 1789, tends to prove it:—

‘ A kite was observed rising from the ground with some prey, and instead of flying to an adjoining wood, he soared almost perpendicularly. After remaining a short time stationary, he came gradually down, with his wings extended and motionless, and dropt very near the place from which he had risen.

‘ Several persons who were near, and saw the flight and descent, ran immediately to the spot, and a weasel darted from the kite, which they found dead; and they discovered, on examination, that the kite had been bit in the throat, and bled to death. Near it they found a dead mole, yet warm, which was bitten in the neck; and they concluded that the weasel had caused the death of both.’  
P. 177.

The last communication in this division is a very valuable one, as it shows that a strong rich manure may be produced from lime and peat-earth. We would, however, advise the experiment to be repeated.

In the class of chemistry, we find an account, from Mr. Bentham, of a method of keeping water sweet during long voyages. This gentleman’s idea is, in many respects, a very correct one, that water is tainted by the wood. He proposes, therefore, to keep the water in tanks, made of tinned copper sheets, or rather in wooden vessels lined with these sheets, soldered so

nicely as to prevent the access of the water to the wood. This method will, undoubtedly, be an effectual one; the tanks can be more conveniently stowed, and there is not so much danger of the water starting, as it sometimes does by the casks rolling. But as charring the staves on the inside is a precaution equally successful, it remains to be determined, whether the conveniences stated are equal to the difference of expense. The only other communication in this class respects the inspissated milk of lettuces. It seems, in one solitary instance, to have produced all the effects of opium, given in about a double dose. It produces, however, its disagreeable effects also. Mr. Cartwright supposes, that, if the juice of lettuces can be rendered valuable in this way, the vegetable may be afterwards useful for feeding hogs.

Mr. Shelldrake's paper in the class of polite arts, though subservient to these, is chiefly chemical, and has, in substance, appeared in the former numbers. The principle of our author's discovery is, that in drying oils there is a mucilaginous substance, which separates spontaneously; and that they act as such, by the mucilage rising to the surface, when employed in painting, and there hardening. Metallic calces, and every substance which increases the drying power, increase the separation of the mucilage alone, and injure the colours. Our author substitutes amber and copal with success; and the methods of dissolving these substances have been copied in our journal. Mr. Shelldrake's observations on this subject, and his arguments to show that this was really the varnish employed by the painters of the Venetian school, if not perfectly satisfactory, render his opinion highly probable.

Under the class of manufactures we find a very good common paper, almost as good as is employed in printing some of the German classics, prepared from a vegetable substance, which in Bengal is used for making coarse bags, ropes, &c. It is called the *paut plant*. Of this there are two species, the *corchorus olitorius* and *capsularis* Linn. It certainly may be advantageously resorted to in the coarser papers; but the price of rags has now fallen, in consequence of the peace—though we mean not most remotely to insinuate that our continental neighbours are more ragged than ourselves.

The root of the chicoree plant is employed in Germany as a substitute for coffee. It is the *cichorium intybus* L. and is cultivated for that purpose. The cultivation and manufacture are described at length in the paper before us, but are not sufficiently interesting to detain us.

Under the head of mechanics is a very simple machine for raising water, by Mr. Serjeant: it is described and illustrated by a plate. This is followed by an account of three whales struck by the gun-harpoon; but we see no evidence to prove



that they might not have been killed by the common harpoon.—Mrs. Besant's improvement of the undershot wheel, chiefly adapted for back water, deserves the attention of mechanics, as possessing some advantages over the common wheel, and having greater powers of action.—Mr. Phillips received the gold medal for his improved method of driving copper bolts into ships, without bending them or splitting the heads: his method, as well as his punch and tubes, are particularly described.—A description and plate is also inserted of Mr. Arkwright's machine for raising ore from mines.

Mr. Evans has discovered a quarry of the burr-stone in Montgomeryshire, equal to the French burrs. It was found on the western confines of Montgomeryshire, bordering on Shropshire, about a mile and a half distant from the Severn, whence the conveyance is easy to every part of the kingdom.

Mr. Terry received the silver medal for his mill, calculated for grinding hard substances, as bones, ashes, coffee, &c. A description and plate are annexed.

The advantages of Mr. Bullock's drawback-lock for house-doors—of which there are also a description and engraving—consist in the great facility with which the bolt shoots. The door, in falling fast, therefore, always catches with little noise; and it is very easily opened, viz. with one-twenty-fourth part the force necessary to open common locks of this kind.

Mr. Gent's crane, or machine for raising heavy weights, and ore from mines, has a double advantage; viz. of making a perpendicular draft, and discharging the load without any intermediate space; and, 2dly, of raising it to a sufficient height, so as to place the article in a cart or carriage.

Sir George Onesiphorus Paul's communication, on the ventilation of hospitals, is truly valuable; as equally simple and ingenious. It consists in communicating the ventilating funnels with the fire, and thus increasing their power by the rarefaction of the heat. Sir George's letter is however somewhat verbose. The real substance might be comprised in three pages. M. de Lafon's account of the merits of his new escapement for watches we cannot give in shorter words than his own.

‘ Having considered the perfection of chronometers to consist more in giving an equal impulse to the balance than to any other general cause, I present, in hopes of the approbation of the society, the model of a new escapement, which has not only the property of correcting the errors of the main-spring, train of wheels, &c. and giving an equal power to the balance, but likewise the wheels are locked, without spring-work, perfectly safe from getting out of order, and are unlocked with less power than in any escapement I know, as the wheels do not bear against the locking with more than a tenth part of the whole pressure from the main-spring; a circumstance I believe to be perfectly new.

‘ Although the giving an equal impulse to the balance has been already most ingeniously done by Mr. Mudge, and by Mr. Haley (from whose great merit I would not wish to detract), yet the extreme difficulty and expense attending the first, and the very compound locking of the second, render them far from completing the desired perfection.’ P. 331.

In the department of colonies and trade, we find a valuable communication respecting the application of myrobalans, as a substitute for galls. The astringent power of these nuts resides almost exclusively in the pulp; and they furnish all the different shades of buffs, with different mordants. There were many kinds of myrobalans formerly employed in the *materia medica*. That most useful, as a dying substance, is the *phylanthus emblica* of Linnæus.

Stick-lack has also furnished a very valuable lake, little inferior to cochineal. A very interesting account of the insect, and the different manner of separating the beautifully red fluid, is given in a letter from Dr. Bancroft. The following extract deserves particular notice.

‘ I had found, more than twelve years ago, that the *true* or *natural* colour of cochineal when given to wool by dying, with the common solution, or nitro-muriate of tin, which the dyers invariably employ for dying scarlet, was not a *scarlet*, but a bright *rose* colour, as N<sup>o</sup> I. of the samples which accompany this paper; and that in the usual process it only became a scarlet from the chemical action of the acid of a considerable portion of tartar, which the dyers invariably use; though without knowing the particular effect resulting from it.

‘ N<sup>o</sup> II. is a sample of a very beautiful *scarlet*, dyed by the successor of the late Mr. Nash, in Gloucestershire, and like all *true* scarlets is a *compound* colour, of about three portions of the rose of N<sup>o</sup> I. and one portion of pure yellow; though in this instance the effect or colour results not from the addition of a *foreign yellow*, but from such a conversion of the cochineal rose colour towards the yellow as is equivalent to about one fourth of the whole. Reflecting on this fact, and considering the great difference in price between the colouring-matter of cochineal and that of the purest known *yellows*, I concluded that a great saving of expense might be obtained by employing the former without tartar, so as only to produce that portion, which is necessary, of the *rose* colour, and superadding a suitable portion of yellow from some of the cheaper yellow dying-drugs; among which the *quercitron-bark* naturally occurred to me as producing, with the solutions of tin, one of the purest and brightest yellow colours; of which a sample may be seen at N<sup>o</sup> III. Upon this principle the sample N<sup>o</sup> IV. has been dyed; by first giving the cloth a yellow ground, with a suitable quantity of the usual solution, or nitro-muriate of tin, and of the quercitron-bark, and then superadding the cochineal *rose* colour, by dying it in the usual way with cochineal, and a like solution of tin as for a scarlet;



taking care only to omit the tartar, which would otherwise have carried the colour so much farther towards the yellow hue as to produce an aurora.' p. 361.

The colour of lake is about one quarter of that of cochineal; four pounds of the former being required to perform the office of one pound of the latter.

An account of the rewards bestowed by the society, and the list of the members,—which is much more extensive than appeared in the former publications,—conclude the volume.

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ART. V.—*General View of the Agriculture of the West Riding of Yorkshire. Surveyed by Messrs. Rennie, Brown, and Shirreff, 1793. With Observations on the Means of its Improvement, and additional Information since received. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By Robert Brown. 8vo. 6s. sewed. Robinsons.*

OUR author will not find that the majority of farmers agree in every part of his eulogium on the Board of Agriculture; nor will critics, in general, admire the wisdom of entrusting surveys to strangers. To strangers, indeed, who are free from local prejudices, every custom will appear in a more new and striking light; yet prejudices in favour of their own practice may, on the other hand, improperly bias their judgement. A great source of error however will be, that a stranger is on these occasions viewed with a little jealousy and mistrust. Many will be cautious of giving information; and some, we fear, may mislead. A stranger cannot always appreciate his authorities; nor can he easily decide when discordant opinions—as, on agricultural subjects, such will often happen—are offered to him. Perhaps what was done in the survey of Lincolnshire—though we must still blame the rejection of Mr. Stone's labours without having assigned a reason—may be most advantageous; viz. after receiving the account of a resident surveyor, a direction that the whole be re-examined by a man of real knowledge and competent judgement. Had Mr. Rennie and his companions enjoyed an anterior survey, they would have executed their task more successfully than they have done—the path before them being in this respect new and unexplored.

The western district is on the west and south of the other parts of the county; bounded on the west chiefly by Lancashire; and on the south by Nottingham and Derby shires. It is in itself a considerable county, containing more than a million and a half of statute acres. The county, except on the east, in the neighbourhood of the Ouse, is high, and catches the clouds from the Atlantic in common with the mountains of West-

moreland; but in a less degree; the average quantity of rain at Sheffield being thirty-three inches annually. The rivers are not large, but numerous, and generally navigable. These, with canals in many different parts, render the conveyance of goods easy, and add greatly to the prosperity of the county, by the scope and extent they afford to its various manufactures. Their coal, their iron, stone, and lead ores, are sources of considerable wealth. The manufactures of Sheffield are too well known to enlarge on; and many similar establishments are highly flourishing. Within the last thirty years, also, the woollen manufacture has considerably increased in this part of the kingdom.

The account of the 'tenures and state of property' is very unsatisfactory; and indeed much of the information is so vague and inexplicit, that it might have been written in a garret in London, assisted by a tolerable map of the county. Under the head of farm-houses and offices, we have an account of lord Hawke's farm, and some remarks on what farms should be. The only information relative to Yorkshire is, that the barns are too large, for that stacking is more advantageous than housing; and that the cottages are too few. The general apology for the defect, that they were strangers, we cannot admit; for why were strangers sent?

The farms are in general small; and this leads to a discussion of the greater advantages arising from large or small farms. Our author is in favour of the larger divisions. Respecting rent they give very scanty information, and we should average it at about thirty-five shillings an acre. With respect to the poor, we find as little instruction, and have rather a declamation against the poor-laws than an account of the proportion of the rates. The want of leases—for the greater part of the land is let from year to year, and the tenant is subject to a removal at six months' warning—is justly reprobated. This custom effectually shuts the door against every attempt to improve. The covenants in the leases that exist do not appear to us much more favourable to amelioration.

Respecting the implements of husbandry, we find the Rotherham plough particularly described, and have a copious eulogy on threshing machines, with their history from the time of Moses. The seventh chapter is on inclosing: and we find much of this part of the county is inclosed, 'except common-fields and moors;' but that the inclosures are too small. Almost the whole of the remaining pages are employed in defence of inclosures. We should be glad of information where the passage quoted from the great Linnæus, in favour of inclosing, occurs. Every part of the paragraph translated is totally different from his style and the objects of his research.

The land is chiefly in grass, and tillage is not practised in its improved state. Fallowing is warmly commended, and, as usual,



the author steps out of his way in the disquisition. The rotation of crops offers nothing very interesting. It is cramped in this district by injudicious tenures. Respecting the crops commonly cultivated, we have little new information: of those not usually cultivated, we have some hints not very generally known. What relates to flax we shall transcribe.

‘ This is a plant which has never been popular in Britain, and, notwithstanding the premiums which have been so long bestowed upon those who raised it, the quantity annually sown does not appear to be upon the increase; many parts of this island are naturally fitted for producing it, and none more than that large tract of ground, upon the banks of the Ouse, situated in this Riding. In the neighbourhood of Selby, a considerable quantity is annually raised, and from the list of the claims given in to the clerk of the peace, for the West Riding, it appeared that the parliamentary bounty was claimed, in the year 1793, for no less a quantity than 59,000 stones. From our own experience (having formerly sown many acres with flax,) we can say with confidence, that, upon a proper soil, no other crop will pay the farmer better than flax; and if due pains and attention are bestowed upon the pulling, watering and skutching, flax of as good a quality may be produced at home, as what is imported from Holland, or the Baltic.

‘ The produce of an acre of flax will be from 24 to 40 stone averdupois, after it is clean skutched. This operation is performed by the hand, in the West Riding, there being no mills erected in that part of the country for this purpose. Some of the flax is allowed to stand for seed, which of course renders the flax of less value.

‘ We have found inferior soils, such as new broken up muirs, as well fitted for raising seed as others of a better quality; and they have this advantage, that while the rent is but small, the trouble of weeding them is equally trifling. Besides, seed and flax ought never to be attempted together; when the former is intended, the ground ought to be sown much thinner, so as the plant may have sufficient air to fill the bolls; whereas, when the flax itself is considered as the object, it ought to be sown much thicker, to prevent it from forking, and becoming coarse; we believe a neglect of these things has contributed to render this valuable and necessary plant not so profitable as might, from the public support bestowed upon it, have been expected.’ P. 101.

Flax, however, has been generally considered as a crop which impoverishes the land; and our author admits it to be a ‘scourging crop.’ Licorice is one of the uncommon crops. It grows in sand, but is subject to be rotted from the wet. Woad is cultivated, but seemingly in no great quantity.

Though this is a feeding district, the chapter on grass contains little information of importance, and that on orchards and gardens still less. The subject of woods and plantations is very shortly discussed. Much oak and ash wood grow in this district, which

are employed chiefly in ship-building, in the mines, and the collieries. In the West Riding there is much waste and common land, and our author warmly recommends general inclosing. We have often said, that this practice should find its own level. Acts of inclosure should be facilitated, but not forced, lest the balance be disturbed too rapidly.

Drainage seems, on the whole, to be partially, and often imperfectly, practised; but, as usual, we meet with declamation, argument, and particular description, instead of real and general information. Irrigation appears to be occasionally employed; but, on this subject also, the account is vague and unsatisfactory. Paring and burning are discouraged by our author, except on heath lands or peat earth. What relates to manures is chiefly confined to dunging and liming. Some observations on the latter subject deserve notice, but admit not of an extract. Warping is warmly recommended, and seems to be practised in the West Riding extensively, and with advantage.

The observations on live stock are trite and trifling; but the author recommends the employment of horses rather than of oxen, and enforces his arguments with judgement and propriety. They merit considerable attention.—Mr. Brown is very warm in his invectives against pigeons; perhaps with justice.

Wages and provisions are higher than we could expect, though still lower than in many other parts of the kingdom: the price of fuel is moderate. The subject of political œconomy offers nothing very interesting. The author endeavours to show that the antiquity of the woollen manufacture is greater than has been in general supposed. The population of this district is considerable, and probably increasing. The miscellaneous observations, and the obstacles to improvement, contain only some very trite and trifling remarks. The means of improvement are of more consequence; but their value is chiefly local. In reality, our surveyors have seen with glances so slight and incurious, that we trust very little to their remarks, and can pronounce this to be one of the most trifling unsatisfactory statements we have ever seen. The notes are equally vague and trivial, often advancing assertions the most inconsiderate, and opposition the most unnecessary.

No. 1 of the appendix contains extracts from the surveyor's journal; and as the facts are here better compacted, it was to us much more satisfactory and instructive than the work, expanded under the many different chapters, and isolated among numerous declamations or extraneous disquisitions. No. 2 contains a short but good account of the vale of Skipton. No. 3 is a letter from Mr. Payne, giving a history of the parish of Frickley near Doncaster, and of the adjoining one of South Kirkby. No. 4 is an extract of a letter from a farmer,



offering a short statement of the soil and husbandry in the neighbourhood of Pontefract. In his parish there have been no inclosing bills; and the poor-rates have immoderately increased. These two facts he connects as cause and effect; but we cannot admit them to be so without further proofs.

The fifth number contains some very judicious remarks on 'the obstacles to improvement, and the means necessary for rectifying the practice of husbandry in the West Riding.' The writer of this paper opposes small farms, and we have lately adduced some arguments on the same side. We may take occasion to enlarge on the subject; and, when it is properly brought forward, we strongly suspect that the great body of evidence will be in favour of farms, at least of moderate, if not of great extent—of perhaps from 150 to 200 acres each.

The extracts from Mr. Parkinson's correspondence show him to be an intelligent farmer, but offer nothing of importance sufficient to induce us to enlarge on them. The state of the waste lands affords a very unpleasing picture—of indolence, sordid avarice, or gross inattention: they amount, in Yorkshire only, to near 850,000 acres.—The observations on the size of live stock, by Mr. Day, of Doncaster, agree very nearly with our own opinion. What relates to oxen we shall transcribe.

'I am much inclined to believe, that breeders in general are desirous of breeding their cattle of too great a size, which is neither for their own advantage, nor for that of the country in general. My opinion is, that oxen weighing from 40 to 60 stone, are the most useful to the consumer, and worth more per stone than greater weights. There are other advantages attending small cattle. There are many parts of England, where the land would just support cattle of from 80 to 90 stones, that would fatten, and consequently would bring to perfection, those of from 40 to 50 stone. This plainly shews that middling weights, are the most generally convenient, and consequently the most profitable to the grazier. Nor can I believe, that the smaller weights are so liable to diseases, being in general hardier; but if they should happen to die, the loss of an ox of 40 stone weight is not so much felt as one of a larger size. Smaller animals also, are in general quicker feeders, where the shape of the animal is attended to. There is no sort of breed, that, on the whole, I am fonder of, than the Galloway scot, as the beef is of very good quality, and their size is well calculated for general consumption. I beg leave to add, that of all the signs of a good feeder, there is none I prefer to that of having a small head. It is rare indeed to see a large coarse-headed animal a good thriver.' p. 74, Appendix.

Sheep should not, he thinks, exceed from fourteen to twenty pounds per quarter; and he remarks, what we know to be true, that six fleeces of the smaller sheep will be more valuable than four of the larger.

The ninth number contains an account of the different townships in the wapentake of Claro; and the tenth (misprinted eighth), statistical information respecting different parishes. These two numbers afford some valuable facts; but they are of local importance only. The eleventh number, the last, gives us a statistical account of the parish of Drax, on which we need not enlarge.

ART. VI.—*History of the Rebellion in Ireland, in the Year 1798, &c. containing an impartial Account of the Proceedings of the Irish Revolutionists, from the Year 1782 till the Suppression of the Rebellion. With an Appendix to illustrate some Facts. By the Rev. James Gordon, Rector of Killegny, &c. twenty-five Years an Inhabitant of the County of Wexford. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Hurst. 1801.*

THIS work appears to have been printed in Ireland, and is a decent and interesting account of the recent commotions. There is no preface or introduction of any kind; and the narrative is continued without subdivision—a plan which we cannot recommend. There is, however, a tolerable index.

The author traces the progress of the rebellion from the year 1782, when, by the exertions of the Irish volunteers, the legislature of the sister kingdom became in some measure independent. Mr. Gordon is little capable of profound and extensive views; else he might, with a steady and rapid pencil, have delineated the destinies of Ireland from the commencement of the English conquest. He might have explained the singular character of the native race, who are certainly marked by a peculiar stubborn obliquity of intellect, and by a train of ideas very remote from those of industrious and civilised nations. If any benefit be conferred, they argue from their own sensations; whence they conclude that it must proceed either from fear, or some design of assuming a future advantage. If you ask an Irish peasant, whether it will rain to-morrow? he hesitates a long time, and summons up his whole wisdom to divine what can be your object in asking such a question. You are examined whither you intend to go, and what business you mean to transact; but your design appears so profound to his bewildered ideas, that you are answered in a very doubtful and irregular manner. This zig-zag oddity of apprehension branches out into many subdivisions, and often produces an equal eccentricity of conduct. In these observations we do little more than repeat those of a medical gentleman, a native of Ireland, who had a considerable estate in the western parts,



and was intimately conversant with the character of the Irish peasantry. He always ridiculed the idea of any concession whatever; and used to say, that, if Ireland were resigned to the natives, they would insist upon the complete possession of England and the East-Indies. As an example in point, he mentioned, that, having abated one-third of the rent to an Irish tenant in consideration of some losses he had sustained, the tenant went home and told his relations—'Arrah, our landlord is afraid of us: in future I shall only pay him one-quarter.'

This singularity of character equally surprised and disgusted the French invaders; and their officers loudly swore that they would never again visit such a country. As it seems to vanish when the Irish are transplanted to other regions, and become mingled with other nations, emigrations cannot be greatly regretted. But, as it possibly might be cured by education, particularly of the mathematical kind, it is most deeply to be lamented that the English, many centuries ago, did not introduce an universal system of education, by parochial and other schools, as was wisely ordered by the Scottish government with regard to the Highlanders, whose quiet and contented character forms a striking contrast. It may indeed be affirmed, without any degree of rashness or presumption, that the Irish commotions were as unavoidable a consequence of the want of attention to this grand and radical object, as the vices of an uneducated or neglected son are to an improvident parent.

Having premised these reflexions, arising from a warm and patriotic regard for the United Kingdoms, we return to Mr. Gordon's narrative; from which we shall be contented with offering a few extracts for the amusement of our readers, as the general series of facts is trivial and well known; and there is nothing in the arrangement or style to challenge particular observation. He informs us (p. 10) that a petition of the Irish catholics in 1792, fraught with gross misrepresentations, was presented to his majesty through 'the influence of Edmund Burke, a most determined champion of the Roman-catholic church, though a protestant in external profession.' In p 13, we are told that earl Fitzwilliam, a disciple of Burke, was a warm friend of the Romanists.

The view of the organisation of the United Irishmen is interesting.

'The association consisted of a multitude of societies, linked closely together, and ascending in gradation, like the component parts of a pyramid or cone, to a common apex or point of union.—The lowest or simple societies consisted each originally of thirty-six, afterwards at most of only twelve men, as nearly as possible of the

same neighbourhood, that they might be mutually under the inspection one of another. An assembly of five secretaries, severally elected by five simple societies, formed a lower baronial committee, which had the immediate superintendence and management of these five societies. Ten delegates, elected one from each of ten lower baronial, composed an upper baronial committee, which in like manner directed the business of these ten lower committees. With the same superintendence over their constituent assemblies, delegates from the upper baronial, one deputed from each, formed in the counties, county committees, and in populous towns, district committees; and the provincial committees, one for each of the four provinces, were composed of delegates from the district and county committees, two from each, sometimes three, when the extent and population of the district seemed to require a more numerous representation. The supreme and uncontrouled command of the whole association was committed to a general executive directory, composed of five persons, unknown to all excepting the four secretaries of the provincial committees; for they were elected by ballot in these committees, the secretaries of which alone examined the ballots, and notified the election to none except the persons themselves on whom it fell. The orders of this hidden directing power were conveyed through the whole organised body by not easily discoverable chains of communication. By one member only of the directory were carried the mandates to one member of each provincial committee, by the latter severally to the secretaries of the district and county committees in the province, by these secretaries to those of the upper baronials, and thus downward through the lower baronial to the simple societies.

The military organisation was grafted on the civil of this artfully framed union. The secretary of each of the simple societies was its non-commissioned officer, serjeant, or corporal; the delegate of five simple societies to a lower baronial committee was commonly captain over these five, that is, of a company of sixty men; and the delegate of ten lower baronial to an upper or district committee, was generally colonel, or commander of a battalion of six hundred men, composed of the fifty simple societies under the superintendence of this upper committee. Out of three persons, whose names were transmitted for that purpose from the colonels of each county to the directory, one was appointed by this executive body to act as adjutant-general of that county, to receive and communicate all military orders from the head of the union to the officers under his jurisdiction.—To complete the scheme of warlike preparation, a military committee, instituted in the beginning of the year 1798, and appointed by the directory, had its task assigned to contrive plans for the direction of the national force, either for the purposes of unaided rebellion, or co-operation with an invading French army, as occasion should require. Orders were issued that the members of the union should furnish them selves, where their circumstances allowed it, with fire-arms, where not, with pikes. To form a pecuniary fund for the various expences of this great revolutionary machine, monthly subscriptions, according to the zeal and ability of the sub-



scribers, were collected in the several societies, and treasurers appointed by suffrage for their collection and disbursement.

‘ From this fund were supplied the demands of the emissaries commissioned to extend the union. Of these considerable numbers were dispatched into the southern and western counties, in the beginning and course of 1797, where, though many had been sworn into the union, little progress for the effectual promotion of the system had been made before the autumn of 1796; and so little was made for some time after, that in May, 1797, at the eve of an intended insurrection, the strength of the association lay, exclusively of Ulster, chiefly in the metropolis and the neighbouring counties of Dublin, Kildare, Meath, Westmeath, and King’s county. This body of political missionaries received instructions to work on the passions, the prejudices, and feelings of those to whom they should address themselves.’ p. 26.

The Orangemen appear to have originated in Armagh, being protestants who united to defend their property against the Romanists. Our author (p. 56) justly blames the burning of houses by the British troops at the beginning of the commotions; because that severity spread desperation among many classes of men, who, having nothing to lose, became the most violent actors in the insurrection.

‘ The attack of Prosperous, a small town in the county of Kildare, intended for a seat of cotton manufactures, seventeen miles distant from Dublin, was made an hour after midnight, on the night of the 23d, or morning of the 24th, by a large body of men, supposed to be conducted by John Esmond, a Romish gentleman, first lieutenant of a troop of yeoman cavalry. The small garrison was assailed by surprise. The barrack was fired, and twenty-eight of the city of Cork militia, with their commander, captain Swayne, perished in the flames, and by the pikes of the enemy. Nine men also of a Welch regiment of cavalry, styled Ancient Britons, were slaughtered in the houses where they had been billeted, and five were made prisoners. Many of the perpetrators of this atrocious butchery were, by the trembling loyalist inhabitants, recognised to be the same who on the preceding day had surrendered to captain Swayne, and, in the presence of a Romish priest, had expressed the deepest contrition for having engaged in the conspiracy of United Irish, and made most solemn promises of future loyalty—a melancholy instance of dissimulation, practised elsewhere in similar circumstances! Here, as in all other places where the insurgents had success, in the early part of the rebellion, while their hopes were high, a tumultuous and frantic exultation took place, with congratulations of Naas and Dublin being in the possession of their associates; the conveyance of such false intelligence, to inspirit their followers, being a part of the policy almost constantly practised by the leaders of the revolt. Loud shouts were heard, especially from a multitude of women, who always followed the men on such occasions, of *down with the Orangemen!* and, which marked the object of insurrection

at its very commencement in the minds of the common people, *down with the heretics!* They accordingly murdered with deliberate ceremony, and mangled their bodies in a horrid manner, two gentlemen of the names of Stamer and Brewer, and an old man who had been serjeant in the king's army. That a slaughter of the remaining protestant inhabitants would have been perpetrated, is highly probable, if it had not been prevented by the approach of a body of troops, through fear of whom the rebels fled. Richard Griffith, esq. with part of his troop of yeoman cavalry, and forty of the Armagh militia, who had repulsed the assailants at Claine, pursued them almost to Prosperous, three miles distant, which caused much terror to the rebels in possession of that town.' P. 72.

Though Mr. Gordon may be reasonably supposed to be biassed in favour of that church of which he is a member, yet, upon a careful perusal of his work, we find many unaffected proofs of impartiality. We are therefore inclined to credit this part of the narrative, and, in consequence, to infer that the catholics really intended to avail themselves of the pretence of general freedom to seize the supreme authority—and that their toleration would have been, at least, questionable.

' Discouraged by defeats, many of the rebels began to wish for leave to retire in safety to their homes, and resume their peaceful occupations. Of this a remarkable instance occurred on the 28th, and another on the 31st of May. Lieutenant-general Dundas, who had, in the afternoon of the 24th, defeated a rebel force near Kilkullen, and relieved that little town, received on the 28th, at his quarters at Naas, by Thomas Kelly, esq. a magistrate, a message from a rebel chief named Perkins, who was then at the head of about two thousand men, posted on an eminence called Knockawlin-hill, on the border of the Curragh of Kildare, a beautiful plain, used as a race-course, twenty-two miles south-westward of the metropolis. The purport of this message was, that Perkins's men should surrender their arms, on condition of their being permitted to retire unmolested to their habitations, and of the liberation of Perkins's brother from the jail of Naas. The general, having sent a messenger for advice to Dublin castle, and received permission, assented to the terms, and, approaching the post of Knockawlin on the 31st, received the personal surrendry of Perkins and a few of his associates; the rest dispersing homeward in all directions with shouts of joy, and leaving thirteen cart-loads of pikes behind.

' This disposition to surrender, which good policy would have encouraged among the insurgents, was blasted three days after by military ardour, which, when it eludes the salutary restraints of discipline, and is exerted against an unresisting object, ceases to be laudable. Major-general sir James Duff, who had made a rapid march from Limerick with six hundred men, to open the communication of the metropolis with that quarter, received intelligence of a



large body of men assembled at a place called Gibbit-rath, on the Curragh, for the purpose of surrendry, to which they had been admitted by general Dundas. Unfortunately, as the troops advanced near the insurgents to receive their surrendered weapons, one of the latter, foolishly swearing that he would not deliver his gun otherwise than empty, discharged it with the muzzle upwards. The soldiers instantly, pretending to consider this as an act of hostility, fired on the unresisting multitude, who fled with the utmost precipitation, and were pursued with slaughter by a company of fencible cavalry, denominated Lord Jocelyn's fox-hunters. Above two hundred of the insurgents fell upon this occasion, and a far greater number would have shared their fate, if a retreat had not been sounded with all possible dispatch, agreeably to the instructions of general Dundas, who had sent an express from his quarters at Kilcullen to prevent such an accident. In the public prints this body of insurgents is asserted to have assembled for the purpose of battle, and to have actually fired on the troops; but the truth ought to be related without respect of persons or party. The affair is well known to have been otherwise; and the rebels were crowded in a place neither fit for defence nor escape—a wide plain without hedge, ditch, or bog, quite contrary to their constantly practised modes of warfare.

‘ This eagerness of the soldiery for the slaughter of unresisting rebels, was often fatal to loyalists; for frequently some of the latter were prisoners with the former, and being found among them by the troops, were not always distinguished from them. A remarkable instance, in the march of this army, was on the point of having place in the melancholy catalogue which might be authentically formed. A protestant clergyman of an amiable character, Mr. Williamson of Kildare, who had fallen into the hands of the insurgents, and been saved from slaughter by the humanity of a Roman-catholic priest, was, as having been spared by the rebels, deemed a rebel by the soldiery, who were proceeding instantly to hang him, when they were in a critical moment prevented by the interference of his brother-in-law, colonel Sankey.’ P. 83.

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‘ On the morning of the 23d of May, a labouring man, named Dennis M<sup>c</sup>Daniel, came to my house, with looks of the utmost consternation and dismay, and confessed to me that he had taken the United Irishman's oath, and had paid for a pike with which he had not yet been furnished, nineteen pence halfpenny, to one Kilty a smith, who had administered the oath to him and many others. While I sent my eldest son, who was a lieutenant of yeomanry, to arrest Kilty, I exhorted M<sup>c</sup>Daniel to surrender himself to a magistrate and make his confession; but this he positively refused, saying that he should in that case be lashed to make him produce a pike which he had not, and to confess what he knew not. I then advised him, as the only alternative, to remain quietly at home, promising, that, if he should be arrested on the information of others,

I would represent his case to the magistrates. He took my advice, but the fear of arrest and lashing had so taken possession of his thoughts, that he could neither eat nor sleep, and on the morning of the 25th, he fell on his face and expired in a little grove near my house.' p. 88.

From p. 113, we learn that such is the hardy constitution of the Irish peasantry, that it was difficult to kill them; and the number who recovered from desperate wounds greatly surprised the author.

The most sanguinary conflict, in what was called the *croppy war*, was fought near Ross, by the rebels under Harvey, and the British troops under major-general Johnson.

' Though this was doubtless the most bloody battle of the *croppy war*, I am not convinced that the loss of the assailants amounted to three thousand, or even two thirds of that number. That of the royal army in killed, wounded, and missing, was acknowledged to be two hundred and thirty, of whom ninety lay dead on the scene of action. This army, before the battle, had consisted of about twelve hundred men.—The rebels left behind them in their retreat fourteen swivel guns, and four cannon on ship-carriages. An artillery man of the royal army, a prisoner of the rebels, had been appointed to the management of one of those canon, with menaces of instant death if he should not level right—and death he instantly found for aiming high. The fight had been so irregularly maintained by the rebel forces, that beside the neglect of their original plan, probably not half, or even a fourth part of their number, (supposed to be near twenty thousand) ever descended from Corbet-hill to share the danger; and many in the beginning of the action fled to their homes, and were, some hours before the decision of the combat, giving a fancied narration of the success of the day.

' The alliance of cowardice with cruelty cannot perhaps be more strongly exemplified than in some of this day's transactions. Some run-away rebels, who had not dared to hazard their persons in the battle, turned their fury against objects equally void of criminality as incapable of resistance. Beside the massacre of three protestant men, who had fought courageously on the side of the rebels against the king's forces, they committed an act of such atrocity as requires no comment:—At the house of Scullabogue, the property of a Mr. King, at the foot of Carrickburn-mountain, had been left, when the rebel army marched to Corbet-hill, above two hundred protestant prisoners of both sexes and all ages, under a guard commanded by John Murphy, of Loughnagheer. The runaways, declaring that the royal army in Ross were shooting all the prisoners, and butchering the catholics who had fallen into their hands, feigned an order from Harvey for the execution of those at Scullabogue. This order, which Harvey himself, a protestant and a man of humanity, was utterly incapable of giving, Murphy is said to have resisted—but his resistance was vain. Thirty-seven were shot and piked at the hall-door; and the rest, a hundred and eighty-four in



number, crammed into a barn, were burned alive—the roof being fired, and straw thrown into the flames to feed the conflagration. I have conversed with some respectable men who viewed the scene of this diabolical action on the following day, and who were struck with inexpressible horrors at the sight. Father John Shallow, Roman-catholic priest of Adamstown, has been charged by some with being concerned in, or approving of this horrid business; but from the affidavits of three protestants which I have read, and other grounds, I am decidedly inclined to think the charge not well founded. Another priest is on more probable grounds considered by some as the chief instigator of this horrible deed—whose name I forbear to mention, lest he may possibly be innocent, and I should unjustly bring odium on him. A few Romanists, according to some accounts fifteen in number, one of whom was Father Shallow's clerk, had been, partly by mistake or inadvertence, partly from obnoxious circumstances in the unfortunate objects, inclosed in the barn with the protestants, and by the precipitancy of the murderers shared the same fate.' P. 120.

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‘ The rebels, who after the defeat of Walpole's army on the 4th of June, had wasted their time in burning the town of Carnew, in trials of prisoners for Orangemen, the plundering of houses, and other acts of like nature, at length collected their force at Gorey, and advanced to attack Arklow on the 9th, the only day in which that post had been prepared for defence. Their number probably amounted to twenty-seven thousand, of whom near five thousand were armed with guns, the rest with pikes, which gave them in some points of view the appearance of a moving forest, and they were furnished with three serviceable pieces of artillery. The troops posted for the defence of this, at that time, most important station, consisted of sixteen hundred men, including yeomen, supplementary men, and those of the artillery. The rebels attacked the town on all sides, except that which is washed by the river. The approach of that column, which advanced by the sea shore, was so rapid, that the picket guard of yeoman cavalry stationed in that quarter was in extreme danger, a party of the rebels having entered and fired what is called the fishery, a part of the town on that side, composed of thatched cabins, before they could effect their escape, so that they were obliged to gallop through the flames while the main body of this rebel column was at their heels. So great was the terror of this troop of yeomen that most of them stopped not their flight till they had crossed the river, swimming their horses, in great peril of drowning, across that broad stream. The farther progress of the assailants was prevented by the charge of the regular cavalry, supported by the fire of the infantry, who had been formed for the defence of the town, in a line composed of three regiments, with their battalion artillery, those of the Armagh and Cavan militia, and the Durham fencibles. The main effort of the rebels, who commenced the attack near four o'clock in the evening,

was directed against the station of the Durham, whose line extended through the field in front of the town to the road leading from Gorey.

As the rebels poured their fire from the shelter of ditches, so that the opposite fire of the soldiery had no effect, colonel Skerret, the second in command, to whom major-general Needham, the first in command, had wisely given discretionary orders to make the best use of his abilities and professional skill, commanded his men to stand with ordered arms, their left wing covered by a breast-work, until the enemy leaving their cover should advance to an open attack. This open attack was made three times in most formidable force, the assailants rushing within a few yards of the cannons' mouths; but they were received with so close and effective a fire, that they were repulsed with great slaughter in every attempt. The Durhams were not only exposed to the fire of the enemy's small arms, but were also galled by their cannon. A piece of these, directed at first much too high, designedly by a soldier, taken prisoner by the rebels, of the name of Shepherd, appointed to manage the gun, was afterwards levelled so by Esmond Kyan, a rebel chief, that it broke the carriage of one of the battalion guns, and obliged the left wing of the regiment to shift its ground, by advancing twenty paces, to avoid being enfiladed by the shot. One of the balls carried away the whole belly of a soldier, who yet lived some minutes in that miserable condition, extended on the ground, and stretching forth his hands to his associates. Whatever talents general Needham may have possessed as a leader, of which I think it not necessary to give my opinion, he displayed for some time the courage of a soldier, riding from post to post exposed to the enemy's fire. He, however, at last, began to talk of a retreat. The resolution of colonel Skerret, on that occasion, saved Arklow, and, in my opinion, the kingdom. His reply to the general, when addressed on the subject of a retreat, was in words to this effect. "We cannot hope for victory otherwise than by preserving our ranks: if we break, all is lost; and from the spirit which I have seen displayed at this awful crisis by the Durham regiment, I can never bear the idea of its giving ground."—By this magnanimous answer of the colonel, which had the full approbation of lieutenant-colonel Bainbridge and the other officers, the general was diverted some time from his scheme of a retreat, and in that time the business was decided by the retreat of the rebels, who retired in despair, when frustrated in their most furious assault, in which Father Michael Murphy, priest of Ballycannoo, was killed by a cannon-shot, within thirty yards of the Durham line, while he was leading his people to the attack. This priest had been supposed by the more ignorant of his followers to be invulnerable by bullets or any other kind of weapon; to confirm them in which belief he frequently shewed them musket balls, which he said he caught in his hands as they flew from the guns of the enemy. Though I was well acquainted with the extreme credulity of the lower classes of my Romanist countrymen, I could not give credit to this account until I found it confirmed beyond a doubt by various concurring testimonies. The same divine



protection was believed to be possessed by Father John, the famous fanatic already mentioned.

'This battle, though not altogether the most bloody, was perhaps the most important of this war, since it probably decided the fate of Ireland. As the rebels were not pursued, for a pursuit would have been very hazardous, particularly near the close of the evening, which was the time of their retreat, they carried away most of their wounded, so that their loss could not be ascertained, but may have amounted to three or four hundred. The loss of the Durham regiment, out of three hundred and sixty men, of which it consisted, was twenty privates killed and wounded. One of its officers only received a hurt, captain Holmes of the grenadier company, the corner of whose eye was grazed by a musket-ball, which caused an effusion of blood and a most excruciating pain. This he supported with surprising fortitude, remaining at his post, and continuing to perform his duty. The loss of men sustained by the rest of the army I could not accurately learn; but it was very small, much less than might have been expected; for though the weight of the combat lay on the Durhams, the action was every where warm, and the defence bravely maintained.' P. 128.

We shall not dwell on the detestable massacre at Wexford, nor on other shocking circumstances of this commotion, with which the public ear has for a long time been repeatedly disgusted; and our extracts having already rather exceeded the proposed measure, we shall only indicate one or two striking passages. Few rebels were spared (p. 187) who could be proved to have saved a loyalist or his property—this humanity being considered as a proof of influence. The author hesitates, however, to believe that the report of this measure proceeded from policy; and that the insurgents were represented as exhibiting no humanity, in order to render their cause universally odious. The Hessians (p. 197) exceeded the other troops in depredation, and actually destroyed many loyalists, till the arrival of the marquis of Huntley and his Highlanders introduced a different scene of order, justice, and mercy. Mr. Gordon conjectures (p. 203) that Ireland sustained damage by these commotions to the amount of two millions sterling. He observes (p. 218) that those who were most scrupulously observant of the catholic religion and ceremonies were uniformly the most addicted to cruelty and murder; while the bullies of the country, at fairs and other pacific meetings, were uniformly the greatest cowards in the field.

The account of the French expedition, under Humbert, appears to be related with clearness and precision; and our author is largely indebted to the Narrative of the Bishop of Killala, who records the assertion of Charost, that no consideration should prevail on him again to trust himself to such a horde of savages as the Irish. The importance of the following remarks commands their insertion.

‘ Much work indeed is left for the imperial parliament, to attach the mass of the Irish peasantry to the constitution. This cannot be effected so long as the peasants are physically miserable. In my humble opinion, those taxes ought to be abolished which fall heavily on this description of men. Since the rents of lands, which are in general dreadfully severe on the Irish peasants, cannot be limited by law, long tenures ought to be enacted, which might encourage them to improve their grounds, so as to rise into a more comfortable condition, and augment at the same time the national riches. I should also wish a fair and equitable commutation of tithes, or such modification of them as would relieve the industrious cultivator, by obliging the lazy grazier, and the idle esquire, to bear a just proportion of the burthen. These hints may appear presumptuous from an obscure individual; but I conceive it to be the duty of every writer, who on reflexion is strongly biassed in favour of the utility of a measure for the welfare of his country, to give his opinion freely to the public. That some defects must have existed in the system might, I should think, appear from the disturbances which have had place at several times among the peasants of Ireland; as the open, yet almost bloodless insurrection of men styling themselves *Hearts of Oak*, in the year 1763, in the counties of Armagh, Tyrone, and Derry—men of all sects of religion indiscriminately; the more bloody insurrection of the *Hearts of Steel*, ten years afterwards, in the counties of Antrim and Derry, mostly protestants, irritated to violence by exactions of rents and fines of leases on the estate of the earl of Donegal; and the nocturnal outrages committed many years in the south by the *Whiteboys*, particularly in the counties of Tipperary and Kilkenny. Neither is emigration to America, from an island which could easily maintain double the number of its present inhabitants by a due cultivation and improvement of its lands, a very favourable symptom. What revenue might Ireland contribute for the support of the British power under proper encouragements of industry, when under many discouragements her annual revenue to the crown has risen from less than ten thousand pounds, in the fourteenth century, to near six millions, or six hundred fold, at the close of the eighteenth?’ P. 297.

The appendix contains several papers, letters, trials, &c. Of these documents, one of the most striking is a letter from Harvey, when at the head of the insurgents, declaring his utter inability of acting according to his own intentions.



ART. VII.—MONUMENT DE YU, ou la plus ancienne Inscription de la CHINE ; suivie de trente-deux Formes d'anciens Caractères CHINOIS, avec quelques Remarques sur cette Inscription et sur ces Caractères, par JOSEPH HAGER. A Paris, chez Treuttel et Würtz, Libraires. De l'Imprimerie de Pierre Didot l'Ainé, au Louvre. An X. 1802.

*The Monument of YU, or most ancient Inscription of China ; to which are annexed thirty-two Forms of ancient Chinese Characters, with Remarks on the Inscription and them, by Joseph Hager, &c. Folio. 1l. 18s. Boards. Imported by Payne and Mackinlay.*

DR. Hager, in his introduction to the *Elementary Characters of the Chinese*\*, printed last year in London, having inserted, as both pertinent to his subject, and also as a singular curiosity, this inscription, which had never been published in Europe, nor even been seen by M. Cibot, was anxious to ascertain how far the authenticity of the work printed at Japan might be relied on, respecting the characters in question. No sooner, however, had he arrived at Paris, and betaken himself to his destined appointment, than he was agreeably surprised by a manuscript of the late Father Amiot. This manuscript he found to contain not only the same inscription largely and beautifully penciled in China, but, what was still more interesting, these identical characters, impossible for any European to decipher, translated by Chinese antiquaries into others of modern use, and explained by Amiot himself in the French language.

As this monument of Asiatic palæography may, from its antiquity, vie with the Amyclæan, Sigæan, or Eugubine inscriptions ; those on the caverns of India, the obelisks of Egypt, or the bricks of Babylon ; Dr. Hager conceived he should gratify the public by communicating an accurate representation both of it, and the inscription, painted on cloth, from the original at *Si-gan-fou*, by a native of the country, and sent to be preserved among the manuscripts of France. To these, the ancient characters ascribed to Yu, and sculptured on stones deposited in the *Imperial College at Peking*, are annexed for the purpose of comparison. These characters have been taken from a collection of Chinese writings, used in the different ages of the monarchy, and still kept in the same college, a beautiful copy of which is in the national library of France. In addition to these, are subjoined *thirty-two* forms of other ancient characters, from tombs, marbles, seals, coins, tablets of bamboo, stone-drums, metal vases, clocks, and other ancient works of China, published at Peking by the order of the emperor *Kien-long*. These thirty forms are found in a work of extreme scarcity in

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. vol. 31, p. 361.

China itself, the only copy of which, that hath crossed the seas, belongs also to the national library.

The frontispiece to this volume exhibits *nine* ancient Chinese vases, which the editor found in the *Han*, or sixth cover of the *San-tsai-tou*, an encyclopædic work of the Chinese. By *Yu*, the author of this monument, these nine vessels were cast in metal, upon which he caused to be engraved a several description of the nine provinces which constituted the Chinese empire. The nine circlets on the back of the tortoise placed above the vases have been ever regarded as a sacred number from the time the mysterious tortoise appeared to *Yu*. On a second frontispiece are engraven, in various attitudes, dragons, the well-known attributes of the emperors of China, as the eagle is of the German empire, or the lion of England. These dragons have five claws on each foot, to distinguish them from the Japanese, which have but three. At the top is an upright oval, to which two of these dragons are supporters, inscribed with the characters *You-tchi*, which signify *by order of the emperor*, and are prefixed to all works published by his authority. The other characters in both frontispieces are ancient, and of the same import as the modern characters on the half titles; viz. those on the first signifying the *Monument of Yu*; and, on the second, *Ancient Characters*.

The history of the monument is as follows. In the 61st year of the reign of *Yao*, there happened so great and general a deluge in the empire of China, that the Yellow River, surmounting its banks, was confounded with the waters of two others, and, overwhelming the plains, became, as it were, a vast sea; insomuch that the hills were covered; it surpassed the mountains; and appeared to extend to the clouds. The evils which this deluge occasioned exceeded the powers of description; the chief necessities of life were wanted, the people were reduced to misery, and the sovereign was overcome by dejection.

Nine years had thus passed in calamity, when *Yu* was selected to rescue the nation from its suffering. Though young, he soon displayed his extraordinary talents, which the annals of this vast empire are ample in describing. They represent *Yu* as an excellent geometer and mathematician, a distinguished naturalist, geographer, and financier; eminent beyond all others in political science, and possessed of genius unrivaled.

Uniting valour and perseverance to prudence and wisdom, *Yu* contented not himself with restoring quiet and plenty within, but established order without, chastised the *Yao-miao*, engaged the *San-miao* to a voluntary submission, reduced the country of *Lo-koue* to obedience, and received as tributaries the people of *Chou-chen*.

In rendering such services to the empire, *Yu* not only merited



the title of great, but opened for himself a way to the throne. —From this brief statement of his history, the inscription of Yu is entitled to particular notice. In China, the literati regard it as the most ancient in their country, whether it were contemporary with Yu (that is, of above four thousand years' standing), or erected to his memory by one of his successors. It was engraven on a rock of *Heng-chan*, one of those celebrated mountains on which the emperors of China offer an annual sacrifice to the Supreme.

It was carried thence to *Si-gan-fou*, the capital of the province of *Chen-si*, a city in which the most ancient monuments of China are preserved, and, among them, that Chinese-Syriac inscription, which has excited so much curiosity in Europe, and was translated by *Visdelon* in his *Supplement to D'Herbelot*.

The monument of Yu, when removed to *Si-gan-fou*, was placed at the head of the rest, and (as the Chinese inscription, engraven under it when there erected, announces) was so placed for the express purposes of preventing these ancient characters from being falsified; to afford the learned an opportunity to examine it without being obliged to undertake a troublesome journey to *Heng-chan*; and also that *Si-gan-fou*, the ancient capital of China, which contained so many other monuments of antiquity, should not be without the most ancient of all.

As to the forms of the characters themselves, they are both extraordinary and antique; for they bear no resemblance to any other Chinese characters hitherto known; have nothing in common with the trigrams of *Fohi*, published by the missionaries of Peking, and in several other works;—nor with the characters styled *Kou-ven*, some of which are engraven in the Philosophical Transactions, as communicated from China by the missionary *Amiot*, and of which the library at Paris contains the collection;—they have no affinity to the characters denominated *Tchouen-tsu*, thirty-two different sorts of which are given in this volume, and which are contained, with all their variations, in the dictionaries entitled *Tchouen-tsu-luy*, *Tching-tsu-tong*, &c. Still less are they like the modern characters which constitute the 214 elements, or keys, not one of which is seen in the inscription of *Heng-chan*.

What appears, however, more remarkable, is this, that, though the monuments sculptured in stone at the *Imperial College of Peking* exhibit the different modes of writing from the time of *Tsang-hié*, to whom the invention of characters is ascribed, and, among these, the characters used in the time of *Hia-Yu*\*, neither those of *Tsang-hié* nor of Yu (not to mention any of their successors) have the slightest congruity with those of this

\* Yu is styled *Hia-Yu*, to denote his being the founder of the imperial family of *Hia*.

inscription. In proof of this assertion, Dr. Hager has given two curious specimens of these characters, and infers, from their obvious dissimilitude to those of the inscription, some ground of suspicion as to the accuracy of the Chinese antiquaries in interpreting its meaning; for how, it may be asked, could they decipher groups so different from all else hitherto known, or which present resemblances as vague and arbitrary as the wild etymologies of *Vargas* and *Count de Gebelin*?

It is indeed true, that, on the mountains of eastern sacrifice (*Tai-chan*) in the province of *Chan-tung*, seventy-two inscriptions, graved on as many tables of marble, and all in different characters, are to this day visible; for there was a time when seventy-two sorts of characters were in use; but there is no one now who can read, and much less understand them; and, while one missionary sends to Europe the inscription of *Yu*, another affirms it to be no longer legible. As, however, the antiquaries of China pretend otherwise, and *Amiot* has translated their interpretation, we will here submit it to the reader.

‘TRADUCTION FRANÇOISE.

‘L’EMPEREUR m’intima ses ordres; la joie me prêta des ailes pour voler à leur exécution.

‘De tous ceux qui, sans cesse à ses côtés, l’aideroient à soutenir le poids des affaires, je fus le seul sur lequel il se reposa entièrement du soin de rendre les grandes et les petites isles aussi propres à servir de demeure aux oiseaux et aux quadrupèdes que pouvoient l’être les lieux plus élevés; je n’ai pas frustré son attente.

‘J’ai travaillé en personne à faire écouler les eaux; moi-même j’en ai imaginé les moyens, moi-même je les ai mis en œuvre.

‘Pendant long-temps j’ai oublié que j’avois une maison, ne prenant repos que sur les montagnes, au milieu des rochers escarpés, ou dans les lieux exposés aux injures de l’air.

‘Les soucis continuels dont j’ai été agité m’ont rendu méconnoissable. Uniquement occupé de mon travail, je ne comptois ni les heures ni même les jours; mais avançant toujours mon ouvrage, je l’ai enfin heureusement terminé.

‘Les montagnes *Hoa, Yo, Tay, Hang*, ont été les différents termes de mes travaux vers les quatre parties du monde. La gloire d’avoir pu pénétrer par-tout est la recompense de mes peines, et les sacrifices que j’ai offerts en actions de grâces avec un cœur sincère et droit sont des témoignages de ma reconnaissance.

‘S’il me reste quelque sujet de tristesse, je le renferme au-dedans de moi-même: pourquoi le produirois-je au-dehors? Ces conduits, qui, dirigés inconsidérément vers le sud, n’avoient servi qu’à étendre l’inondation et rendre les eaux croupissantes, ont été remplacés par d’autres qui en ont facilité l’écoulement.

‘La vertu toujours agissante du ciel va désormais répandre son efficacité sur tout; on aura de quoi se vêtir; rien ne manquera pour la subsistance; la douce tranquillité régnera dans l’univers; les danses et les illuminations vont avoir lieu pour toujours.’



The thirty-two different kinds of characters which follow the inscription here given are the same as those of the *Eloge de la Ville de Moukden*, published at Paris by M. De Guignes from the copy printed at Peking. Excepting a few of the sorts given by Kircher, and some in Dr. Hager's analysis, these characters are new to Europe. Many, however, of those there inserted from the *Japanese Encyclopedia*, are wanting; which shows with what uncertainty these characters have been transmitted. The doctor observes that those first in order, which begin in the Chinese manner (*You-tchou-tchouen*) are not the most ancient; at least there is no proof that they are, though they are placed first in the emperor's poem, and the canonical books are printed in them. The origin of the Chinese characters is lost in the obscurity of time. The most general opinion of the Chinese is, that *Tsang-hié*, minister of *Hoang-ti*, was the inventor of them; and, according to this notion, the characters which imitate *birds' feet* are the most ancient. However, the author of the Essay on the Chinese Characters has shown that this opinion is but ill founded; and a man of letters from China, speaking of *Tsang-hié*, affirms that this history, or rather fable, of *the traces of birds' feet*, is fit only to amuse children.

As to the execution of this work, splendid as was the doctor's English publication, it by no means surpasses the present. Indeed the forms and impressions of the large characters and black-grounded plates are altogether unrivaled. In plate III, Nos. 74 and 75, Dr. Hager remarks, have not received from the engraver the precise forms of the original; but, taking the work at large, it certainly stands above all competition.

Having recently received from Dr. Hager a letter on some observations that concerned him in our review of Dr. Montucci, we think it but justice to insert his defence.

'I have found from the Chinese tonic dictionary which the national library possesses, an incontrovertible proof of the ignorance and rashness of M. Montucci, in saying that *fu* has no fifth tone. I can quote to you the Chinese work itself; it is called *Ping-tsu-t sien*, and you will find it in Fourmont's Catalogue, No. 10. Any one acquainted with this dictionary, which was printed in China, by referring to the syllables ending in *u*, will find *fu* in the *fifth* tone, as well as in others.

'You did me wrong in correcting me as to *tsu* instead of *tsee*. Pray read what I have said in my introduction, p. liii. You will there find that *Meng-tsee*, the name of the disciple of Confucius, is also expressed by *Meng-tsu*; *Su-ki*, or *Se-ki*, or *Xe-ki*, the ancient annals of China, &c. &c. Fourmont himself writes always *su*, or *tsu*, where Amiot writes *see*, or *tsee*; and the Dictionary of the Propaganda agrees with Fourmont.

'I may say the same in respect to the number of the Chinese monosyllables. The different pronunciation increases or lessens

them by comprehending different sounds under one and the same sound or monosyllable. Thence it is that some reckon 330, others 340, and others 500. The diversity of sounds in different provinces prevents the possibility of certainly fixing them.

ART. VIII.—*Researches, Chemical and Philosophical; chiefly concerning Nitrous Oxide, or dephlogisticated Nitrous Air, and its Respiration. By Humphry Davy, Superintendent of the Medical Pneumatic Institution. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Johnson.*

THE discovery of the dephlogisticated nitrous air was one of the 'lucky hits' of Dr. Priestley in his random trials on different species of aerial fluids, begun without a plan, and concluded without any satisfactory information. It was consequently left, as a mere gleanings, to the test of more scientific inquirers. The fate of this gaseous substance is peculiarly singular. In the western hemisphere, it was, according to Dr. Mitchell, the septon, the corrupting principle, the source of disease and death: in our more enlightened regions, it animates with peculiar spirit; it possesses the exhilarating principle of wine without its intoxicating quality; it enlivens, without the mixture of any narcotic power, without being followed by any sedative influence. We once witnessed the effect of this singularly exhilarating draught; but we never experienced it, for the consequences were too serious; and we were not sure, were the expressions of hilarity genuine, that the patient might not have been condemned to the discipline of coercion and a strait waistcoat. It has since, we find, in a more dilute state, been employed as a remedy for palsy, for atony, and the whole class of incurable diseases;—with what success, we are yet to learn.

By these remarks, we mean no reflexions on Mr. Davy, whom we have already met in the walks of science; and if we have reprehended his forward eagerness, he has made the *amende honorable* by abandoning his crude and unscientific views. We now find him correct and exact in his experiments; in the present instance somewhat inclined to elevate and surprise;—but he is still young.

\* In the arrangement of facts, I have been guided as much as possible by obvious and simple analogies only. Hence I have seldom entered into theoretical discussions, particularly concerning light, heat, and other agents, which are known only by isolated effects.

\* Early experience has taught me the folly of hasty generalisation. We are ignorant of the laws of corpuscular motion; and an immense mass of minute observations concerning the more complicated chemical changes must be collected, probably before we shall be able



to ascertain even whether we are capable of discovering them. Chemistry in its present state is simply a partial history of phenomena, consisting of many series more or less extensive of accurately connected facts.' P. xiii.

In the first research our author analyses the nitrous acid and nitrous gas, and explains the production of the nitrous oxyd. The composition of nitric acid, and its combinations with water and nitrous gas, are the subjects of the first division. The first attempt was to reconcile the apparently inconsistent conclusions of M. Lavoisier and Mr. Cavendish, respecting the composition of the nitrous acid. The experiments for this purpose are very minute, and accurately executed. The idea of forming a standard acid, with which to compare the others, is very ingenious, and we shall extract the description of it.

'We may then conclude, First, that 100 cubic inches of nitrous acid, such as exists in the æriform state saturated with oxygene, at temperature 55, and atmospheric pressure 30,1, weigh 75,17 grains.

'Secondly, that 100 grains of it are composed of 68,06 nitrous gas, and 31,94 oxygene. Or assuming what will be hereafter proved, that 100 parts of nitrous gas consist of 55,95 oxygene, and 44,05 nitrogene, of 29,9 nitrogene, and 70,1 oxygene; or taking away decimals, of 30 of the one to 70 of the other.

'Thirdly, that 100 grains of pale green solution of nitrous acid in water, of specific gravity 1,301, is composed of 50,62 water, and 49,38 acid of the above composition,' P. 19.

'Comparing the different synthetical and analytical experiments, we may conclude, with tolerable accuracy, that 92,75 grains of bright yellow, or standard acid of 1,5, are composed of 2,75 grains of nitrous gas, and 90 grains of nitric acid of 1,504; but 92,75 grains of standard acid contain 85,23 grains of nitrous acid, composed of about 27,23 of oxygene, and 58, nitrous gas; now from 58, take 2,75, and the remainder 55,25, is the quantity of nitrous gas contained in 90 grains of nitric acid of 1,504; consequently, 100 grains of it are composed of 8,45 water, and 91,55 true acid, containing 61,32 nitrous gas, and 30,23 oxygene; or 27,01 nitrogene, and 64,54 oxygene; and the nitrogene in nitric acid, is to the oxygene as 1 to 2,389.

'My ingenious friend, Mr. James Thomson, has communicated to me some observations relating to the composition of nitrous acid (that is, the orange-coloured acid), from which he draws a conclusion, which is, in my opinion, countenanced by all the facts we are in possession of, namely, "that it ought not to be considered as a distinct and less oxygenated state of acid, but simply as nitric or pale acid, holding in solution, that is, loosely combined with, nitrous gas\*." P. 29.

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\* In a letter to me, dated Oct. 28, 1799, after giving an account of some experiments on the phlogistication of nitric acid by heat and light, he says, "It was from an attentive examination of the manner in which the nitric acid was phlogisticated in these experiments, that I was confirmed in the suspicion I had long

The result of our author's inquiries into this difficult subject is thrown into tables, showing the quantity of acid and gas in nitrous acids of different colours and gravities. In general, he finds these results coincide with those of Mr. Cavendish's experiments.

The second division of this essay contains 'experiments and observations on the composition of ammonia, and on its combination with water and the nitric acid.' The little errors, that seem to have crept into the experiments of the first analysers of water, which influenced the results of the analysis of ammonia, led Mr. Davy to repeat the latter with more care; and he found that 100 parts of ammonia really contained 80 of nitrogen, and 20 of hydrogen. The analysis of these two ingredients is of importance, as, from the salt which they form on their union, the nitrat of ammonia, the source of the gaseous oxyd is produced. The proportions of these ingredients, in the crystallised salt, are 72.5 of the acid, and 19.3 in 100 parts of the alkali. The remainder is water, which differs according to the crystallisation: in the prismatic or fibrous nitrat, it is 12.1 in 100, and, in the compact nitrat, only 5.7.

The third division relates to the decomposition of nitrat of ammonia, the preparation of respirable nitrous oxyd, and its analysis.

'1st. Compact, or dry nitrate of ammoniac, undergoes little or no change at temperatures below 260°.

before entertained, of the real difference between the *nitrous* and *nitric* acids. It is not enough to shew that in the *nitrous* acid, (that is, the nitric holding nitrous gas in solution), the proportion of oxygene in the whole compound is less than that entering into the composition of the nitric acid, and that it is therefore less oxygenated.\* By the same mode of reasoning we might prove that water, by absorbing carbonic acid gas, became less oxygenated, which is absurd. Should any one attempt to prove (which will be necessary to substantiate the generally received doctrine) that the oxygene of the nitrous gas combines with the oxygene of the acid, and the nitrogene, in like manner, so that the resulting acid, when nitrous gas is absorbed by nitric acid, is a binary combination of oxygene and nitrogene, he would find it somewhat more difficult than he at first imagined; it appears to me impossible. It is much more consonant with experiment to suppose that nitrous acid is nothing more than nitric acid holding nitrous gas in solution, which might, in conformity to the principles of the French nomenclature, be called nitrate of nitrogene. The difficulty, and in some cases the impossibility, of forming nitrites, arises from the weak affinity which nitrous gas has for nitric acid, compared with that of other substances; and the decomposition of nitrous acid (that is, nitrate of nitrogene) by an alkaline or metallic substance, is perfectly analogous to the decomposition of any other nitrate, the nitrous gas being displaced by the superior affinity of the alkali for the acid.

"Agreeable to this theory, the salts denominated *nitrites* are in fact triple salts, or ternary combinations of nitric acid, nitrous gas, and salifiable bases."

'This theory is perfectly new to me. Other chemists, to whom I have mentioned it, have likewise considered it as new. Yet in a subsequent letter Mr. Thomson mentions that he had been told of the belief of a similar opinion among the French chemists.' p. 31.



'2dly. At temperatures between  $275^{\circ}$  and  $300^{\circ}$ , it slowly sublimes, without decomposition, or without becoming fluid.

'3dly. At  $320^{\circ}$  it becomes fluid, decomposes, and still slowly sublimes; it neither assuming, or [nor] continuing in, the fluid state, without decomposition.

'4thly. At temperatures between  $340^{\circ}$  and  $480^{\circ}$ , it decomposes rapidly.

'5thly. The prismatic and fibrous nitrates of ammoniac become fluid at temperatures below  $300^{\circ}$ , and undergo ebullition at temperatures between  $360^{\circ}$  and  $400^{\circ}$ , without decomposition.

'6thly. They are capable of being heated to  $430^{\circ}$  without decomposition, or sublimation, till a certain quantity of their water is evaporated.

'7thly. At temperatures above  $450^{\circ}$  they undergo decomposition, without previously losing their water of crystallisation.' p. 85.

We shall add the properties of the gas when separated: 100 cubic inches weigh 50.1 grains at temperature 50, and atmospheric pressure 37.

'a. A candle burnt in it with a brilliant flame, and crackling noise. Before its extinction, the white inner flame became surrounded with an exterior blue one.

'b. Phosphorus, introduced into it in a state of inflammation, burnt with infinitely greater vividness than before.

'c. Sulphur, introduced into it when burning with a feeble blue flame, was instantly extinguished; but when in a state of active inflammation (that is, forming sulphuric acid) it burnt with a beautiful and vivid rose-coloured flame.

'd. Inflamed charcoal, deprived of hydrogen, introduced into it, burnt with much greater vividness than in the atmosphere.

'e. To some fine twisted iron wire a small piece of cork was affixed: this was inflamed, and the whole introduced into a jar of the air. The iron burned with great vividness, and threw out bright sparks as in oxygen.

'f. 30 measures of it exposed to water previously boiled, was rapidly absorbed; when the diminution was complete, rather more than a measure remained.

'g. Pure water saturated with it, gave it out again on ebullition, and the gas thus produced retained all its former properties.

'h. It was absorbed by red cabbage juice; but no alteration of colour took place.

'i. Its taste was distinctly sweet, and its odor slight, but agreeable.

'j. It underwent no diminution when mingled with oxygen or nitrous gas.' p. 87.

This gas is produced by the heat of  $440^{\circ}$ : at the degree of  $800^{\circ}$  it is decomposed into water, nitrous gas, nitrous acid, and nitrogen. At still higher degrees of heat the attraction of the nitrous gas for nitrogen is destroyed, and that of oxygen for hydrogen augmented, producing water and nitrous

vapour; but we need not pursue the subject more minutely. In decompositions at the temperature of  $800^{\circ}$ , there is a vivid separation of light; and at  $400^{\circ}$ , heat is generated or evolved.

In the preparation of the gaseous oxyd, our author prefers the fibrous nitrat of ammonia; and the gas should rest till an acidulous vapour subsides. For the particulars of the preparation, we must refer to the work; but we may add, that this stimulus is very cheap; since each dose may be prepared for 2d. Gin is dearer.

In the fourth division, Mr. Davy gives an account of the experiments by which the proportions of oxygen and nitrogen, combined in nitrous gas, were estimated. He gives the analysis of nitrous gas by charcoal and pyrophorus, with some additional observations on the combustion of bodies in nitrous gas, and on its composition. This gas is decomposable by most of the combustible bodies; but the analysis by charcoal is much the most accurate method of determining the respective quantities of nitrogen and oxygen, especially when corrected by calculations derived from the other methods: the proportions are 0.56 and 0.84. These differ greatly from those fixed by Lavoisier, arising from some errors in his fundamental experiments on the decomposition of nitre by charcoal.

Nitrous gas, our author finds, is soluble in pure water: 100 parts of the latter dissolve 11.8 of the gas, but do not retain it in a boiling heat; and the gas does not influence the taste of the water. Spring water absorbs much less of the gas than pure water, on account of the quantity of earthy salts. The quantity of gas which disappears is greater than that which the water holds in solution, as a part is united to the oxygen of the atmospheric air combined with the water, while an increased residuum arises from the disengagement of the nitrogen of this air. There are some varieties in the quantity, absorbed by water containing other gases; but this part of the subject is not clear, or indeed important.

Mr. Davy next proceeds to the absorption of nitrous gas by a solution of pale green sulphat of iron. This inquiry is extended to an unreasonable minuteness. The green sulphat alone appears to attract nitrous gas; and the common sulphat absorbs it only in proportion as it contains the green: the red has little or no affinity to the gas. The solutions of green sulphat of iron dissolve nitrous gas in quantities proportional to their concentration, without effecting any decomposition at common temperatures. The attractions which occasion this solubility would lead us too far. Mr. Davy next considers the absorption of nitrous gas by a solution of green muriat of iron, by a solution of nitrat of iron, and by other metallic solutions. These remarks are followed by an account of the action of sulphurated hydrogen on a solution of green sulphat of iron.



impregnated with nitrous gas. A small quantity of the former prevents the decomposition of nitrous gas and water by the green oxyd of iron.

The fifth division of the first research contains experiments and observations on the production of nitrous oxyd, from nitrous gas and nitric acid, in different modes. These experiments relate to a variety of close chemical details, which we cannot follow with interest or advantage. They are of importance only to the minute and scientific chemist, who must read the whole without change or mutilation.

The second research contains inquiries into the combinations of nitrous gas, and its decomposition by inflammable substances. It combines, as we have said, with water; and Mr. Davy tells us he has drank three pints of it in the course of the day. It 'appeared to act as a diuretic, and I imagined that it expedited digestion.' In point of taste, which is said to be sweetish and acidulous, he preferred it to common water. This oxyd has less affinity for water than even the weaker acids, sulphurated hydrogen, and carbonic acid; but it has a stronger attraction than gases not possessed of acid or alkaline qualities. Our author next examines the combination of nitrous oxyd with inflammable bodies, as well as the action of fluid acids, alkaline solutions, and different gases on this oxyd. The union of the nitrous oxyd with alkalis, either in the solid or æriform state, seems a favourite problem with our author, who has attempted it in a variety of ways. He thinks this oxyd unites intimately with fixed alkalis, and that the compounds are insoluble in alkalis, as well as decomposable by acids and heat. These compounds he styles *nitroxes*, and affirms that the nitrous oxyd is of an acid nature; but as it does not redden the blue vegetable juices, and has not a distinct acid taste, he considers it for the present as a body *sui generis*. On the subject of the decomposition of nitrous oxyd by inflammables, we must transcribe the author's general conclusions. The detail would be too extensive.

'From what has been said in the preceding sections, it appears that the inflammable bodies, in general, require for their combustion in nitrous oxide, much higher temperatures than those at which they burn in atmospheric air, or oxygene.

'When intensely heated they decompose it, with the production of much heat and light, and become oxygenated.

'During the combustion of solid or fluid bodies, producing flame, in nitrous oxide, nitrous acid is generated, most probably from a new arrangement of principles, analogous to those observed in sect. ii. by the ignition of that part of the gas not in contact with the burning substance. Likewise, when nitrous oxide in excess is decomposed by inflammable gases, nitrous acid, and sometimes a gas analogous to common air, is produced, doubtless from the same cause.

‘Pyrophorus is the only body that inflames in nitrous oxide, below the temperature of ignition.

‘Phosphorus burns in it with the blue flame, probably forming with its oxygene only phosphoreous acid at the dull red heat, and with the intensely vivid flame, producing phosphoric acid at the white heat.

‘Hydrogene, charcoal, sulphur, iron, and the compound inflammable bodies, decompose it only at heats equal to, or above, that of ignition: probably each a different temperature.

‘From the phænomena in sect. v. it appears, that at the temperature of intense ignition, phosphorus has a stronger affinity for the oxygene of nitrous oxide than hydrogene; and reasoning from the different degrees of combustibility of the inflammable bodies, in mixtures of nitrous oxide and nitrogene, and from other phænomena, we may conclude, with probability, that at about the white heat, the affinity of the combustible bodies for oxygene takes place in the following order. Phosphorus, hydrogene, charcoal, iron, sulphur, &c.

‘This order of attraction is very different from that obtaining at the red heat; in which temperature charcoal and iron have a much stronger affinity for oxygene than either phosphorus or hydrogene.

‘The smallest quantity of oxygene, given in the different analyses of nitrous oxide just detailed, is thirty-five hundred parts; the greatest proportion is thirty-nine.

‘Taking the mean estimations from the most accurate experiments, we may conclude that 100 grains of the known ponderable matter of nitrous oxide, consist of about 36,7 oxygene, and 63,3 nitrogene; or taking away decimals, of 37 oxygene to 63 nitrogene; which is identical with the estimation given in Research I. p. 322.

During these decompositions there is a momentary expansion of the ingredients, connected with increased temperature, and a vivid light. On this subject the author does not engage, and we need not attempt any discussion. We shall conclude our account of this part of the work with a comparison of the various combinations of oxygen and nitrogen.

‘That the oxygene and nitrogene of atmospheric air exist in chemical union, appears almost demonstrable from the following evidences.

‘1st. The equable diffusion of oxygene and nitrogene through every part of the atmosphere, which can hardly be supposed to depend on any other cause than an affinity between these principles.

‘2dly. The difference between the specific gravity of atmospheric air, and a mixture of 27 parts oxygene and 73 nitrogene, as found by calculation; a difference apparently owing to expansion in consequence of combination.

‘3dly. The conversion of nitrous oxide into nitrous acid, and a gas analogous to common air, by ignition.

‘4thly. The solubility of atmospheric air undecomposed in water.

‘Atmospheric air, then, may be considered as the least intimate of the combinations of nitrogene and oxygene.



‘It is an elastic fluid, permanent at all known temperatures, consisting of ,73 nitrogene, and ,27 oxygene. It is decomposable at certain temperatures, by most of the bodies possessing affinity for oxygene. It is soluble in about thirty times its bulk of water, and, as far as we are acquainted with its affinities, incapable of combining with most of the simple and compound substances. 100 cubic inches of it weigh about 31 grains at 55° temperature, and 30 atmospheric pressure.

‘Nitrous oxide is a gas unalterable in its constitution, at temperatures below ignition. It is composed of oxygene and nitrogene, existing perhaps in the most intimate union which those substances are capable of assuming\*. Its properties approach to those of acids. It is decomposable by the combustible bodies at very high temperatures, is soluble in double its volume of water, and in half its bulk of most of the inflammable fluids. It is combinable with the alkalis, and capable of forming with them peculiar salts. 100 grains of it are composed of about 63 nitrogene, and 37 oxygene. 100 cubic inches of it weigh 50 grains, at 55° temperature, and 30 atmospheric pressure.

‘Nitrous gas is composed of about ,56 oxygene, and ,44 nitrogene, in intimate union. It is soluble in twelve times its bulk of water, and is combinable with the acids, and certain metallic solutions; it is possessed of no acid properties, and is decomposable by most of the bodies that attract oxygene strongly, at high temperatures. 100 cubic inches of it weigh about 34 grains, at the mean temperature and pressure.

‘Nitric acid is a substance permanently æriform at common temperatures, composed of about 1 nitrogene, to 2,3 oxygene. It is soluble to a great extent in water, and combinable with the alkalis, and nitrous gas. It is decomposable by most of the combustible bodies, at certain temperatures. 100 cubic inches of it weigh, at the mean temperature and pressure, nearly 76 grains.’ P. 326.

The third research relates to the respiration of nitrous oxyd and other gases. It was found to be destructive, after some time, to warm-blooded animals, previously exciting their powers to a great extent; and more so to small than to large, to young than to old animals; but if the experiment be checked before the animal is completely exhausted, he may recover by exposure to atmospheric air. Animals, however, lived twice as long in nitrous oxyd as in hydrogen or water. The bodies of animals, killed by it, exhibited peculiar appearances. The irritability was greatly lessened, and the blood was of a purple red; thus combining the effects of respired with those of inflammable air. The lungs were covered with purple spots. Amphibious animals, fishes and insects, soon die in atmospheres of nitrous oxyd, or in water strongly impregnated with it. Animals are destroyed by the respiration of mixtures of nitrous

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\* For it is unalterable by those bodies which are capable of attracting oxygene from nitrous gas and nitrous acid, at common temperatures.

oxyd and hydrogen, nearly as in pure nitrous oxyd; nor can they live long in nitrous oxyd, mingled with very minute quantities of oxygen or common air.

Various circumstances respecting the effects of the respiration of nitrous oxyd follow, which we cannot notice, and which indeed furnish nothing very decisive. Different portions of the gas were absorbed by venous blood, and some portions of nitrogen and carbonic acid were at the same time separated. It was not, however, easy to determine how much was owing to the usual effects of respiration when these changes were observed during the action of this function; for the oxyd was absorbed while the other gases were discharged; and we must wait for farther inquiries on this subject.

Mr. Davy next made many experiments to respire different gases. We have already heard enough of the exhilarating effects of the nitrous oxyd. Hydrocarbonate appeared to be merely sedative. Carbonic acid air, when pure, stimulates the glottis, and prevents its admission into the lungs: when diluted, it produces giddiness. Simple oxygen produced oppression on the chest, and no other sensation or effect. Nitrous air produced a stricture also on the glottis; and, when atmospheric air was afterwards breathed, nitrous acid was formed in the fauces, so as to excite active inflammation. We shall copy one of our author's descriptions of the effects of nitrous oxyd.

‘ The moment after, I began to respire 20 quarts of unmingled nitrous oxide. A thrilling extending from the chest to the extremities was almost immediately produced. I felt a sense of tangible extension highly pleasurable in every limb; my visible impressions were dazzling and apparently magnified, I heard distinctly every sound in the room, and was perfectly aware of my situation. By degrees, as the pleasurable sensations increased, I lost all connexion with external things; trains of vivid visible images rapidly passed through my mind, and were connected with words in such a manner, as to produce perceptions perfectly novel. I existed in a world of newly connected and newly modified ideas. I theorised; I imagined that I made discoveries. When I was awakened from this semi-delirious trance by Dr. Kinglake, who took the bag from my mouth, indignation and pride were the first feelings produced by the sight of the persons about me. My emotions were enthusiastic and sublime; and for a minute I walked round the room perfectly regardless of what was said to me. As I recovered my former state of mind, I felt an inclination to communicate the discoveries I had made during the experiment. I endeavoured to recall the ideas, they were feeble and indistinct; one collection of terms, however, presented itself; and with the most intense belief and prophetic manner, I exclaimed to Dr. Kinglake, “ Nothing exists but thoughts!—the universe is composed of impressions, ideas, pleasures and pains!” P. 487.

The feelings of different persons on breathing this air are afterwards noticed; and, in some irritable females, it seemed to



produce hysteric affections. We do not enlarge on this subject, because we wish the experiments to be more generally tried.— To vegetables this air was soon fatal.

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ART. IX.—*Travels in the Ottoman Empire, Egypt, and Persia, undertaken by Order of the Government of France, during the first six Years of the Republic, by G. A. Olivier, &c. Illustrated by Engravings; consisting of Human Figures, Animals, Plants, Maps, Plans, &c. To which is prefixed a Map of Greece, of the Archipelago, and of a Part of Asia Minor. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. with 4to Atlas, 1l. 6s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.*

THESE travels commenced in the infancy of the French republic, when the Cincinnati, drawn from the plough, thought that something, they knew not what, should be done to secure old friends or to obtain new ones. M. Olivier and his companions were consequently sent to Constantinople, and forgotten. The want of a consistent plan, perhaps the want of sufficient funds, but, above all, the want of judgement—whence arose numerous other wants, undigested designs adopted and forsaken, eagerly begun and childishly abandoned—disgraced the early youth of these unfledged statesmen. M. Olivier, however, did as well as he was able, without assistance or credit from his own country, and in opposition to the prejudices of those among whom he resided, both against his cause and his nation. He has published his Travels, though we can scarcely see for what purpose. Turkey has been often described; and he hardly adds a feature to the portrait. The manners of the Turks have been the subject of numerous narratives; and he adjoins few facts of importance to the collection. Their customs and even their prejudices are the same as when they first appeared in Europe. They still prefer their own ignorance to the knowledge they might derive from nations whom they despise; and indulge the incurious idleness which their religion applauds, and from which the monarchy derives numerous advantages. Our author's predecessors, Savary, baron Tott, Volney, lady Mary Wortley Montague, Dallaway, and Sonnini, have described them in succession, without giving a more favourable likeness. If we be indebted to the present writer for any new instructions respecting Turkey, they relate to its political state, the advantages of its situation, and some circumstances of the domestic habits of the Turks: yet, on each subject, it is difficult to select what is new, or related in a new style. M. Olivier ranks high as a natural historian; but his publications are con-

finer to entomology; and we suspect that some of the other parts of natural history have not been his particular favourites. We find some errors in zoölogy, and particularly in mineralogy. M. Olivier calls a country volcanic 'consisting of granite and quartz;' and his translator, not to be behind him in ignorance, speaks of a '*breach* consisting of,' &c.—instead of a *breccia*. We may indeed remark that the translation, though close, is inelegant and often inaccurate: the language is frequently idiomatic, and, in many instances, peculiarly harsh.

Authors have considered the Turkish government as despotic, without sufficient discrimination. The successor of Mahomet is undoubtedly supreme in religion and in legislative powers; the descendents of conquerors must of course rule the kingdom by right of conquest, and dispose of what they please as their own. Yet there are bounds which the emperor cannot pass. In the levying of taxes, for instance, he must take care not to irritate the commonalty; and, in the nomination of judicial offices, he must always regard the length of service, and the superiority of rank, lest he should displease the powerful body of ulemas. He cannot condemn a single individual, or usurp his property, without sentence of the law. Those sultans who have openly disregarded these limits have become the victims of their injustice and ambition; but what they cannot do openly may be practised with dexterity, if not in opposition to the koran. In Constantinople the chains of despotism are concealed by the presence of the sovereign, an immense population, the division of credit, of interest, and of power; but in the provinces they are felt with double weight, under the command of the pachas, whose power is unlimited, and supported by an armed force: it is often superior to that of the emperor, who dares not depose them, but is obliged to connive at their oppressions. One counterbalance only exists, viz. the power of the ayams; these officers are appointed by the people, and selected chiefly from the opinion entertained of their characters and integrity. Their employment is to protect individuals, to preserve order, to regulate the taxes with impartiality, to watch over and take care of the safety of the city.

A strong check against abuses in the cities, and a security for those inhabitants who are neither military men nor agents of government, is, that every mussulman, from the merchant to the lowest labourer, is a member of some corporation, whose chief superintends the community and the rights of individuals. In the country, the people can only appeal to the ayams or to the kiaya, an officer chosen also by themselves, whose exertions are gratuitous. Jews and Christians belong equally to corporations; but their complaints are scarcely heard, and seldom attended to: their only dependence is on money, or a powerful protection.



It may be supposed that the inhabitants of Constantinople live, like those of other cities, by their industry, their ingenuity, or the product of their capitals; and it will scarcely be imagined that they have no other resource than the bounty of the grand-signor, the great offices of government, or some very peculiar employment. Almost all the revenues centre in the capital, in consequence of the taxes; the right of heirship, which the sovereign claims from all his agents; by the confiscations which he connives at; by the sale of offices, and every kind of rank or dignity; by the vast incomes of the mosques and principal offices; and by the forced or voluntary presents made by every man in office to his protector. When we look at the extent of the empire, and the luxury of the court, the revenues will seem to be immense; but, by the best information, they are said not to exceed 200 millions of livres,—about 8 millions and half sterling. Even this contains the revenue of the state, and the private income of the grand-signor. This prince is asserted to have gained considerably by recoinng the money, and debasing its intrinsic value.

We have thus engaged in a short detail of the internal politics of Turkey, chiefly from our author; but we must now attend to him somewhat more minutely, and follow his steps in the present volume. It is, we apprehend, the first only, though divided in the translation into two.

The author, in his introduction, professes to follow the model pointed out by Volney, when he observes that travels should be written in the manner of history rather than romance. This is one of the solemn apophthegms in which modern philosophers communicate trite and unmeaning truths under the semblance of a new discovery. Does the author mean that the narrative should be true, or that singular anecdotes and humorous stories, rather calculated to amuse than instruct, should be avoided? In the former case, the apophthegm is trite and trifling; in the latter, it lessens the entertainment. M. Olivier adopts the latter meaning; and it has occasioned a dulness and want of interest to his work.

The narrative of the voyage is short; and we soon find ourselves at Constantinople. The author describes that city and its situation minutely, but with little novelty; and we shall rather select, as a specimen, part of his voyage through the Thracian Bosphorus to the Black Sea.

On receding from the water-side, the eye extends with pleasure over the suburbs of Galata, Top-hana, Pera, Salybasari, and Fondocli, which you leave on the left, and which presents itself in the form of an amphitheatre. You presently arrive in the front of the seraglio of Bechik-tache, of which I have already spoken. You then see the village of that name, together with those of Orta-keui, Kourou-tchesmé, and Arnaoud-keui; but all this space forms, pro-

perly speaking, only one contiguous village, where are seen some very handsome houses almost entirely built of wood and variously painted: those belonging to the Turks are in white or red; those of the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are of a blackish brown. The latter are not allowed to employ the colours of the mussulmans: in Turkey, the houses, like the garments, distinguish the master from the slave.

‘The ground forms, all along the channel, a chain of schistose hills, very fertile, covered with cypresses, oaks, lime-trees, chesnut-trees, arbutuses, myrtles, brooms, and vines, which present an infinitely agreeable aspect. These hills are interrupted by some vallies of the greatest fertility, which contribute to vary and embellish the picture. Gardens more or less spacious, adorned with flowers and kiosks disposed in such a manner as to receive the current of air, and afford at a distance a view of the channel, make these houses places of enjoyment and delight. Most of the rich inhabitants of Constantinople here pass in summer the whole day, alone, squatted on a sophia, employed in smoking, drinking coffee, casting their eyes on passengers, and rolling in their fingers chaplets of coral, agate, and precious stones.’ Vol. i. p. 106.

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‘We followed the coast of Europe, because the waters which come from the Black Sea form a current more rapid in the middle of the channel and towards the coast of Asia. The caiques which are ascending, all follow the same route, whereas, in returning to Constantinople, mariners take care to keep in the middle of the channel, and even to approach the coast of Asia a little more than that of Europe; which facilitates their return, especially if a light northerly wind allow them to spread their sails.

‘If we consider the quantity of water which the Black Sea receives from the Danube, the Dniester, the Dnieper, and the Don, as well as from a great number of rivers and torrents which descend from Mount Caucasus and the hills of Mingrelia, or which come from Georgia, Armenia, and Natolia, we shall perceive that, confined in a basin too narrow, these waters would have been obliged to spread themselves more in order to provide for a greater evaporation and put themselves in equilibrio, had they not found an issue through the Bosphorus and the channel of the Dardanelles. It is by this means that the surplus of the waters of that sea is incessantly flowing out, and is poured into the Mediterranean: and this is what explains to us why the waters of the Black Sea and those of the Propontis are less salt than those of the Mediterranean and of the Ocean.

‘The current is so strong, that the channel, in some places, rather resembles a river than an arm of the sea: it is seen to oppose the progress of a ship when the south wind blows but faintly. The direction of the coasts compels the waters to set more towards those of Asia, and to form on that side a more rapid current; however, at the point of Arnaoud-keui, one is obliged to ascend by tracking, by means of a rope which is thrown to some sailors who remain continually on the shore. The waters, in this part, have such a rapidity,



that it would be impossible to proceed by rowing without going to a distance from the land: but when this obstacle is overcome, the current is scarcely any longer perceptible, and even, in various places, the direction of the capes causes the waters to ascend, as in rivers; which favours the progress of a boat, as is to be remarked, in a very evident manner, from Top-hana to beyond Fondocli, because the waters, setting with impetuosity on the advanced point of the seraglio of Constantinople, they there divide: one part of them makes the tour of the harbour, returns along Haskeui, the arsenal, Galata, Top-hana, and ascends afterwards to Fondocli and Bechik-tache, while the other sets immediately into the Sea of Marmora. This separation of the waters, as well as their direction, is much more apparent after a heavy rain, when they are disturbed by the small river which discharges itself into the head of the harbour.

‘This circular motion of the waters of the channel, united to that of the small river of which I have just spoken, rids the harbour of Constantinople, as I have said elsewhere, of the ordures which the Turks throw into it, and at the same time sweeps away all the filth which the rain-waters carry into it in winter from every part of the city, and which would not fail to choke it up one day, because the Turks, by no means susceptible of foresight, would be at no expense for keeping it in order.’ Vol. i. p. 109.

‘The next day after our arrival at Buyuk-déré, the weather being fine, and the water perfectly smooth, we hastened to go on the Black Sea, in order to visit the shore at some distance from the mouth of the channel. We frequently landed, as well to examine the coast, as to observe the plants and the various productions of nature that were there to be met with.

‘As soon as we had passed the village, we were struck at seeing on both shores, indications of a volcano which we followed for an extent of several leagues. We distinguished every where rocks more or less changed or decomposed; every where accumulation and confusion attest the action of subterraneous fires: we perceived jaspers of various colours, carnelians, agates, and chalcedonies in veins among porphyries more or less changed; a breach by no means solid, almost decomposed, formed by fragments of trap, agglutinated by calcareous spar; a handsome porphyry on a rocky base of greenish trap, coloured by copper: in short, we saw, over an extent of upwards of half a league, a hard rock of trap of a greenish blue, in like manner coloured by copper.

‘It is this last, no doubt, that occasioned the ancients to give the name of *Cyaneæ* or *Cyanean Islands* to some islets which were situated at the mouth of the channel, near the coast of Europe. At this day they are nothing more than very small rocks; which leads us to believe that their size has diminished from the constant action of the waters which has eaten them away and undermined them by degrees. These rocks were also called *Symplegades*, because they appeared united or joined, according to the place whence they were viewed. As they are more or less apparent, according as the north or south wind raises or lowers the waters in this part, the Greeks, always

inclined to the marvellous, have supposed that these islands were floating and infinitely dangerous to imprudent or inattentive mariners.

‘ On one of these rocks the Romans erected an altar to Apollo, which, at Constantinople, is improperly called *Pompey's Pillar*. Several travelers have made efforts to read the Latin inscription which is there to be found ; but the letters are at present so effaced, that it is difficult, perhaps even impossible to accomplish that task.

‘ We had not time to see whether the indications of a volcano extend to a great distance in Asia, because about ten or eleven o'clock in the morning the wind blew from the northern quarter, and raised a great swell on the sea : it would have been imprudent, in a small caïque, to cross from the point of Europe, where we were, to that of Asia. We contented ourselves with coasting the European shore for some time, and with convincing ourselves that the indications of the volcano extend on that side to upwards of a league.

‘ The width of the channel, at its mouth, is from eighteen to nineteen hundred toises. The entrance is defended, on each side, by fortifications erected by baron de Tott, and augmented lately by some French engineers. The Turks, through ignorance, through foreign influence, or through motives of economy, have always opposed the execution of the plans which the engineers presented to them, though it was very important for them to deprive their natural enemies of the means of coming to disturb them even in their capital. In fact, it would be very easy for the Russians, at this moment, to penetrate into the channel, with a northerly wind, and to advance as far as Constantinople, because the batteries being few in number and exposed, the guns would soon be dismounted by the fire of a line-of-battle ship. A fleet, besides, would escape by receiving a few shot, if the Turkish gunners were more skilful, more exercised, and more active than they are.’ Vol. i. p. 118.

Our author has described, somewhat more minutely than his predecessors, the objects in the environs of Constantinople, the different classes of its inhabitants, and some parts of the management of the harems : yet the whole has, we believe, been generally noticed by other travelers. We have been before told that *embonpoint* was pleasing to the Turkish sensualist, and that the Circassians had European features, with dark or auburn hair. Slavery in Turkey is little more than a name ; for the slaves, in general, are treated kindly, educated, and rise to the first dignities of the empire. Some of the lower classes and the labourers have not an equally happy lot ; and the gloom of the harem offers a very unpleasing prospect to the female captive. M. Olivier gives the same account of the jealousy, the suspicions, the indolence and listlessness, which pervade the female habitation, as former authors have done.

The Giant's Mountain, and the country in the environs of the Black Sea, are well described. The writer adds some narrative of a coal-mine worked by Armenians, producing but little profit. We suspect the substance to be an anthracite. Though our



author rectifies, in some measure, the geography of the Black Sea, it is singular that he has added no map of it. One may probably be designed to illustrate his subsequent travels on its coasts.

The marriage-ceremonies of the moslems are described more minutely than by former authors, and particularly a kind of marriage styled *kapin*, not much employed.

‘The second manner of a man marrying one or several wives, distinguished by the name of *kapin*, consists in his presenting himself before the cadi, and binding himself to feed and maintain till a certain period, such a woman whom he designates and whose consent he has obtained: which is attested by her father or her nearest relation, and two witnesses; to take care of the children that she shall bear, and to give up to her besides, at the time of repudiation or at the expiration of the term agreed on, a sum of money or clothes, effects and property stipulated and expressed. The children that proceed from these marriages, enjoy the same rights as the others, and remain at the charge of the father when he has repudiated or put away his wife.

‘It seldom happens that mussulmans marry in this manner, because women of a certain rank would never consent to be united to a man on such conditions, and because the latter generally prefers to purchase slaves, rather than marry in the *kapin* manner with mussulman women born of poor parents.’ Vol. i. p. 155.

Our author considers at some length the disadvantages of polygamy, but several of these are greatly exaggerated. He does not advert to a known fact, that, in countries where polygamy is allowed, the proportion of females is greater than that of males: in other countries the proportion of the latter exceeds that of the former.

M. Olivier was present when the Turkish army filed off on the expedition against Paswan Oglou; and gives a more satisfactory account of this famous rebel, and the cause of his revolt, than we have yet seen. It shows the independent power of the pachas, and the little firmness and potency of the sultan. The whole is too long for an extract, and incapable of abridgement.

The climate of Constantinople is delightful; yet the stove and pelisse are necessities in the colder months, where fires cannot be procured. Dogs and vultures are almost equally requisite in a country where offal and ordure are constantly accumulating: the latter are in the most emaciated state, and though partly supported by charity and compassion, yet find a very precarious and scanty subsistence. Our author's account of the plague is, on the whole, correct, though with some minute errors; and the political situation of the empire, in the more confined circle of politics, is well described. We have already given a sketch of this kind, though the intelligent reader

will probably seek, in the work itself, for more ample details. The account of the trade of Constantinople is also more full than any we had before seen.

From this city, our author passes the Dardanelles, visits the gulf of Mundania, the Troad, Lesbos, Scio, Cimolis, and some of the adjacent islands of the Cyclades. He proceeds to Milo, returns to Cimolis, and afterwards visits Crete. His account of this last island is very copious. The gulf of Mundania is the dock-yard of the Turks, where their largest ships are built, in consequence of the vicinity of the forests: and the two kinds of oak which the Turkish workmen employ are particularly described; as well as two different sorts of fir. Prince's Islands, at the entrance of the Propontis, had engaged his attention in a separate excursion, and been the objects of a sufficiently minute examination. Should the Turks ever wish to guard against the plague—for M. Olivier has shown that it is not an endemic disease—these islands are admirably adapted for the establishment of lazarettoes. The country and the neighbouring islands are more particularly described by our author than in any other work that we have seen.

The passage of the Dardanelles is the next object of importance; and indeed the whole country, on each side of the Hellespont, is interesting;—it is classic ground.

‘The Hellespont, at first sight, resembles a majestic river quietly carrying its waters to the ocean; but, confined within its bed, it is never known to pass the limits which nature has traced for it. Here are not seen those devastating overflowings to which countries crossed by great rivers are too frequently exposed. Neither are there to be met with, in the environs, those infectious marshes, those stagnant waters, so common towards the mouth of rivers: here the lands are cultivated, or are naturally covered with verdure even close to the water. And if the shores of the Hellespont are not fertilised by canals of irrigation, if the waters deposit not on the lands a fertilising mud, the communications which it establishes between the Propontis and the Black Sea on the one side, the Mediterranean and the Ocean on the other, the advantages which agriculture and industry can derive from the facility of conveyance, are benefits greater, perhaps, than those which would result, to these countries, from the vicinity of a great river.

‘The Rhodius takes its source to the north-east of Mount Ida: it receives a few rivulets which flow from the neighbouring mountains, and, after having traversed a space of twelve or fifteen miles, it discharges itself into the Hellespont, by the side of the castle of the Dardanelles. Its waters, by no means abundant in summer, are kept back and employed in the irrigation of the lands; but in winter, swelled by the rains which are frequent in that season, it occupies a bed sufficiently large to deserve the name of river. The inhabitants of the Dardanelles have constructed a wooden bridge at some distance from its mouth, in order to be able to cross at all times to the left.



bank, and repair to the fields that they cultivate beyond it.' Vol. ii. p. 28.

We find nothing to detain us till we arrive at the Troad; and, with Chevalier in his hand, M. Olivier finds every thing correct which that writer has advanced:—we believe that in *general* it will be found so. But our author was on the site of Troy without discovering any vestiges of it; for, long since, '*periere ruina.*' The remains of its namesake, founded by Alexander in honour or in remembrance of it, are still to be seen, and display traces of former magnificence. Indeed, the situation at the entrance of the Euxine was peculiarly favourable for commerce; but this will be only understood more completely when the commerce of the Euxine has been illustrated with greater depth of erudition, and more comprehensive views, than by M. Huet. Clerke, in his connexion of the Roman and Saxon coins, gives an admirable abstract of it. We forgot to observe that the Black Sea, in different seasons, is said to deserve its opposite titles of *Εὐξεινος* and *Αἰετος* (*hospitable* and *inhospitable*). The oak which bears the gall-nut is carefully described; and we find that the dyers of this country employ also the acorn-cup. This particular species of *quercus* was not accurately known to former naturalists.

The description of the Grecian islands furnishes few remarks of importance. Scio, however, presents a bright spot in the gloom of Turkish ignorance and despotism. This island, as an appanage of the sultana, has numerous privileges, and is exempt from the oppressions which burden the other inhabitants of the Archipelago. This it owes to the cause just mentioned, and perhaps, in some measure, to its furnishing the finest mastich, esteemed so valuable in Turkey for preserving the teeth.

Our author catches, on every side, views of volcanoes; but he leads us to doubt of his accuracy, when we find the surrounding country often described as quartzose or granitic. We do not deny the existence of extinguished volcanoes in the Archipelago, but do not think them numerous. Delos and Naxos are confessedly schistose and granitic. It might, however, have suited ancient fable to find the latter appear suddenly, as though from fire. In the description of Delos there is too much affectation of sentiment; and it has escaped travelers or antiquarians, that the sacred character of Delos was the cause or consequence of its being a commercial *dépôt*.

Naxos has never been conquered, and enjoys a comparative share of liberty; but commerce does not flourish as at Scio, owing, perhaps, to the haughty independent spirit of its nobility, which despises trade. Cimolis contains the peculiar earth, which has all the properties of fuller's earth. The best sort is,

however, brought from the bottom of the sea, in the harbour. It affords a very large proportion of silex, with a little soda and alumine: in the better kind, the proportions of the two latter are much greater. Cimolis contains some catacombs and remains, in the Etruscan taste, probably the work of the ancestors of the Tuscans. The earth is supposed by M. Olivier to be decomposed porphyry.

Milo, the ancient Melos, is certainly volcanic; and our author gives a very particular account of this island, which was once flourishing and independent. He thinks he has discovered the traces of the ancient town, which was situated on a promontory near the road. The remains of marble and granitic columns show that it was once splendid; and the numerous catacombs, like those at Alexandria, that it must have been populous. It is now poor and scantily inhabited.

Of Santorin, our author's account is full and seemingly correct. It is also certainly volcanic; and the various changes it has undergone are described at length, and supported by good authorities. We shall transcribe the summary view.

• If the reader reflect on the considerable changes which the island of Santorin has experienced through the effects of a volcano that acts on it from a very remote period, he will remark in them four principal periods, very distinct from each other. At the first period the island was limited to Mounts St. Stephen and St. Elias, as far as the environs of Pirgos and of Messaria, the only places that are not volcanised. The second was the formation of the rest of the island as far as Therasia and Aspronisi. The roadstead then did not exist, and the island was as large again, of a rounded or oblong form: the ground rose in the form of a *calotte* more or less irregular at its summit, commanded at one of the extremities by Mounts St. Stephen and St. Elias. The third period was the sudden and extraordinary depression which took place in the middle of the island, whence has resulted the roadstead. The fourth and last period, is the formation of three islands which have successively issued from the bottom of the sea. Perhaps, there will one day be formed others; perhaps, all these islands will be united to each other, and all the space which the roadstead occupies, will again be filled up. It is impossible to foresee all the changes that may take place as long as the volcano which exists at Santorin, shall be in activity.

• We say that there was a period when this island was less considerable than it has been in the sequel. In fact, if we consider that the three islands which form the road, are entirely composed of substances vomited forth by a volcano, disposed in strata and in banks, corresponding to each other, we shall be inclined to believe that all these substances thrown out from the bottom of the sea, have formed an island nearly circular. And then if we remark around the roadstead the coast which is perpendicular a great way into the sea, is it not evident that there has been in the sequel a sudden depression of a great part of the island which went to occupy the voids that the anterior explosions must have formed? This depression by occa-



sioning the circular rending which is to be remarked all round the roadstead, formed of a single one, these islands known in antiquity by the names of Thera, Therasia, and Automate. Even though the ancient authors had not transmitted nearly the period at which the island Hieria issued from the bottom of the sea, even though we had not known the exact period of the sudden appearance of the Little and the New Kammeni, inspection alone would indicate that these three islands are of a formation very posterior to that of the other three; for, independently of their not presenting the same organisation, they are not covered with that thick stratum of white pumice-stone which is to be remarked in the islands of Thera, Therasia, and Aspronisi. This stratum appears evidently to have been produced before the appearance of Thera, and even before the formation of the roadstead, since no traces of it are to be seen on that island, and since it does not shew itself on any of the advanced parts of the coast.' Vol. ii. p. 246.

Santorin, our author thinks, was once a populous, rich, and healthy island. The volcanoes have greatly changed its character in each respect.

The history of Crete is very full; but we find nothing either sufficiently new or interesting to detain us. Some account of the climate we shall transcribe. The rise and fall of the sea depend on the winds alone.

'From the time of our arrival in Crete till the approaches of the autumnal equinox, Reaumur's thermometer, with spirits of wine, was constantly during the day at 25, 26, and seldom at 27 degrees, in a room with a north-east aspect. We had at most had 25 degrees at Santorin and at Milo; 22, and 23 at Naxia. True it is that the season was somewhat less advanced when we visited those islands.

'During the three summer months, the excessive heat of the sun is constantly tempered every day, from eight or nine o'clock in the morning till the evening, by the rather rapid current of air which prevails from north to south in the islands of the Archipelago and on the northern coast of Crete. This refreshing wind, called *embat*, takes its course and is modified throughout the Levant, according to the direction of the coasts and the extent of sea which lies before them. We shall remark, by the way, that it is south-west on the southern coast of Crete, of Cyprus, and of Caramania; nearly north-west at Smyrna and Alexandria; west at Tyre, Sidon, and on all the coast of Syria. It comes to Athens, from the west or from the gulf of Lepante; and this it is which the Greeks designated under the name of Zephyr. During the night, the wind takes a contrary direction; it comes from the land to the sea; it is more faint than during the day, and never extends beyond three or four leagues.

'The winds are variable in the other seasons, especially towards the equinoxes; at the end of Fructidor, we experienced, with a southerly wind which lasted two days, a heat of from 30 to 32 degrees. The horizon was then charged with smoke, and the rays of the sun were reddish and faint, as is remarked in Egypt, when the same wind is felt. Citizen Peyron, a ship-captain, told us that being

at anchor at Suda, on the 30th of May, 1793, the heat became so considerable from eight to eleven o'clock at night, during a gale of wind from the south, that people could scarcely breathe, and every one felt a general faintness. The iron guns of his ship had contracted so violent a degree of heat, that a person could not lean his hand on them without being forced to withdraw it immediately. This fact was certified to us by citizen Mure and the other Frenchmen settled at Canea. It is to be regretted that no one ascertained, by means of the thermometer, the true degree of heat which prevailed during this memorable evening.

'Though the cold is sharply felt in winter, on Ida and on the summit of the White Mountains, and though they are covered with snow as early as the end of Brumaire, the temperature is, nevertheless, very mild in the plains and towards the coasts. There it does not freeze: there the rains are frequent, but of short duration. The sun appears almost immediately after the rain, and the sky is frequently clear and serene. In summer it never rains, either in Crete, or in the islands of the *Ægean* Sea. The dew is then sufficient for the support of the vegetation of the plants which grow spontaneously in these climates. Almost all the others must be watered, if it be wished to cultivate them with any success.' Vol. ii. p. 295.

The history of Crete is not very interesting, if we except the late exploits of Lambro, which have much the air of fable, but are yet within the limits of probability. The population is supposed to amount to 240,000; but the number of Greeks is diminishing.

The rivers are chiefly mountain-torrents of melting snow. The famous labyrinth, it is said, may be taken for an old quarry of soft calcareous stone; or for a place of habitation, capable of containing a whole colony, had not ancient authors informed us of its object and its model. But we know the character of the Cretans, and cannot depend on their stories.—The commerce and the productions of Crete are particularly detailed. The productions are numerous and valuable; and most of the varieties of the animal kingdom are, in their different seasons, (fishes excepted) in apparent profusion; but corn, and whatever requires human industry to produce, is scarce; for this island is loaded with the severest chains of the despotic Ottoman.

On the whole, though in many parts this work cannot boast of novelty, or of a manner peculiarly lively or interesting, it contains some facts of importance, which have escaped or been overlooked by former travelers. The translation also improves in the progress; yet in no part does it appear free, easy, or elegant.



ART. X.—*Introduction to the New Testament.* By John David Michaëlis, &c. (Continued from p. 196 of the present Volume.)

RESUMING our review of this valuable work, we proceed to the EPISTLES styled CATHOLIC. In this number are included the Epistle of St. James, the two of St. Peter, the First of St. John, and the Epistle of St. Jude, which acquired the general title of *catholic* from their not having been addressed to any particular community or person. Indeed the Second and Third Epistles of St. John are inserted among these, partly as being written by the author of the First, and partly from the danger of their being lost, on account of their brevity, if suffered to remain detached from the rest.

The title of *catholic* is observed by Michaëlis to be of great antiquity, since Eusebius, in the fourth century, used it as then common; but in the sixth, the Latin writers applied to them that of *canonical*—the first instance of which is found in the writings of Cassiodorus. This change has been supposed by some to have arisen from the terms *catholicus* and *canonicus* having been confounded: our author, however, ascribes the origin of the term *canonicus* to the circumstance that the authenticity of five out of these seven epistles had been formerly doubted—the First of St. Peter and the First of St. John having been the only two of indisputable authority. As, however, the doubts concerning the rest gradually subsided, the term *canonical* was no longer restricted to those just mentioned, but extended equally to the rest. Indeed, Michaëlis supposes it not impossible that they all might have been styled canonical, from the universality of their reception, and as being acknowledged in all books and all languages.

‘Eusebius,’ however, ‘in his catalogue of the writings of the New Testament, has placed only the First Epistle of St. Peter, and the First Epistle of St. John, among the *ὁμολογούμενα*, or books universally received by the Christian church. The other five he has placed among the *ἀντιλεγόμενα*, or books which were not universally received. However the Epistle of St. James was admitted by the greatest part of those who rejected the remaining four. Whether they who rejected these epistles had good reason for so doing, will be considered in the proper places.’ Vol. iv. p. 270.

After these and other remarks on the catholic epistles in general, Michaëlis opens his twenty-sixth chapter with observations relative to the James who was called the brother of Jesus, propounding the five different opinions which have been entertained on the subject:—1. That James and Judas, mentioned as brothers of Jesus, were sons of Joseph, not by Mary the mother of Jesus, but by a former wife;—2. That

they were sons of Joseph by Mary the mother of Jesus;—  
 3. That they were the sons of Joseph by the widow of a brother who had died without children;—4. That from James and Judas being called the sons of Alphæus, Alphæus might have been the name of Joseph's brother, by the marriage of whose widow the law required he should raise up seed to him;—  
 5. That, according to the opinion of Jerome, the term *brothers*, respecting James and Judas, is not to be taken in the literal and strict sense, but as signifying, according to the Hebrew language, cousin, or relative in general; deriving the relationship, in the present instance, not from Joseph, but Mary. Of these five opinions Michaëlis observes—

“—there are only two, which, in my opinion, are at all probable; and these are the first, and the last. Which of these two ought to be preferred, I will not undertake to determine. I was formerly attached to the latter, because I had been taught from my youth that it was the true one, and had heard it supported by very specious arguments. But the more I have examined it, the more I have doubted of its truth: and at present it appears to me less probable, than the first opinion. I shall leave the question however undetermined, and argue in the following sections hypothetically.”  
 Vol. iv. p. 276.

Extending his investigation concerning the author of this epistle, Michaëlis goes on to inquire, whether he were an apostle? and, if one, whether the elder James, or the younger? Having entered at large into the arguments appropriate to his subject, he terminates the section without deciding on the latter question, but inclines to the opinion that the writer was James the Elder.

Reverting to the five opinions already enumerated, and observing that the first was the most ancient, our author proceeds to remark, that, though there be no improbability in supposing the epistle to have been written by a brother-in-law of Christ, the epistle itself affords no warrant for such an inference. After a discussion of the circumstances connected with the subject, however, the professor concludes that the opinion that St. James, called the brother of Jesus, was the author of the epistle in question, is by no means improbable; and adds:

“The more I consider it, the more I am inclined to prefer it to that, which prevailed in the time of Jerom. A person, who was brother, that is, brother in law, of the founder of the Christian religion, who presided many years over the Christian community in Jerusalem, who was considered as one of the pillars of the church, and who at the same time was so delicate in his conduct toward the Jews, that even they, who did not believe, respected him, is exactly such a person, as the author of our epistle, as far as we may judge



from its contents, appears to have been. Absolute certainty however is hardly to be obtained, because our historical information is here defective. We have no writer to whom we can appeal on this subject; and Hegesippus, who lived in the former part of the second century, and who therefore had the means of procuring intelligence, has so blended his account with fable, that no dependence can be placed on it.' Vol. iv. p. 291.

Having terminated this research, the next has for its object *the persons to whom this epistle was written*; and whom the author of it styles 'the twelve tribes, which are scattered abroad'—a compellation evidently applicable not to heathen converts, but native Jews, who lived out of Palestine, and—as the epistle is written in Greek—who used the Greek language. The question, nevertheless, still remains: Was it addressed to the Jews in general, or only to those of them who were converts to the Christian religion?—Besides other arguments in favour of the former opinion, as urged by Lardner in particular, to show that the epistle was addressed to the Jews in general, he expressly opposes to the address of it 'to the twelve tribes which are scattered abroad,' what is advanced by the author in the third verse of the first chapter—*the trying of your faith worketh patience*,—which is considered as scarcely applicable but to Christian faith; and likewise the caution in ch. ii. v. 1. not to hold their faith *εν προσωποληψιας της δοξης*, which implies that his readers were at least ostensible believers in Christ, or he would not have cautioned them against an abuse of their faith in him. Hence, the professor thinks it certain that St. James wrote to persons who were already converted from Judaism to Christianity; at the same time believing, that, as this apostle was highly respected by the Jews in general, it was both his wish and intention to be read by them; and, therefore, that his desire to convert them had an influence on his mind in writing.

Having thus concluded his preliminary inquiries, the professor brings us to the epistle itself. As a prelude to an examination of its contents, he observes that St. James possessed more of the moralist than the dogmatist; and, remarking that this character is confirmed by his writing, he defends its authenticity and inspiration from the objections thence raised; and, after assigning satisfactory reasons for the diversity of the contents of this epistle from those of St. Paul, adds:—

'The precepts and exhortations, which are arranged, not systematically, but so as they occasionally occurred to the writer, may be reduced to the following heads.

'1. St. James exhorts his readers, to bear with patience the misfortunes and persecutions, which they endured on account of their faith: and cautions them not to murmur against God, or to ascribe

to him their temptations to a renunciation of their faith, ch. i. 2—21. The six last verses of this chapter, which may be summed up in the following words, “if ye know these things, happy are ye, if ye do them,” form the conclusion of this exhortation.

‘2. In the next place he exhorts them to a contempt of riches (on which subject he had briefly touched, ch. i. 11. 12), as being the surest means of fortifying themselves against affliction. He knew probably that the Jews, to whom he wrote, set a high value on riches, and considered worldly prosperity as a mark of divine favour. He warns them therefore, not to be admirers of a brilliant exterior, nor to imagine, that wealth and honours are alone worthy of esteem, which he probably means by *προσωπαλυσαι της δοξης*, ch. ii. 1. And, to render this precept more intelligible, he supposes the case of two strangers coming at the same time into the synagogue, the one poorly, the other richly dressed. If the value of their clothes determined the respect to be paid to them, the one might be treated with much less, the other with much greater honour than he deserved. The poor man might be a valuable and sincere member of the Christian church, and though indigent in this world, might be destined to be rich in the world to come. The rich man on the contrary might be an enemy of the Christians, an oppressor of the poor, and might have visited the synagogue, not to set an example of devotion, but merely to gratify his curiosity, or perhaps to find an object for the exercise of his ridicule. St. James then proceeds, ch. ii. 10—26. to some general reflexions on the necessity of acting agreeably to our conviction, and asserts, that whoever wilfully transgresses one point of the law, shews a contempt for the whole law. This leads him to the consideration of the necessity of good works in general; and he concludes by saying, that faith without works is like a body without a soul.

‘In the fourth chapter he resumes the subject of love for worldly possessions and enjoyments, and censures those, who form to themselves imaginary schemes of happiness, without considering, that every thing depends on the will of Providence, and that all their plans may be defeated in a moment. This consideration leads him, ch. v. 1—6. to address the rich, who are too frequently oppressors of the poor, in severe, and at the same time poetical, language. The whole passage is a kind of apostrophe; for he addresses and threatens those, to whom he does not immediately write. In ver. 7—11. he returns from the rich to the poor, whom he comforts, and exhorts to bear adversity with patience.

‘I believe likewise that the 12th verse of the fifth chapter (which appears to be a fragment of Christ’s sermon on the mount) belongs to the same subject, and that it is connected with ch. iv. 13. 14. where St. James had said, “Go to now, ye that say, to-day or to-morrow we will go into such a city, and continue there a year, and buy and sell and get gain, whereas ye know not what shall be on the morrow.” If this supposition be true, ch. v. 12. contains not a prohibition of serious oaths, by which we bind ourselves to the performance of certain duties, but only of wanton oaths, by which we endeavour in common conversation to give energy to an assertion,



that we will do this or that, that we will go to this or that city, &c. St. James then concludes, ch. v. 13—18. with an exhortation to confide in the Supreme Being, whether in prosperity or in adversity.

3. In the third chapter St. James censures the great desire, which many had to teach publicly in the place of worship. This must not be understood of a desire to obtain the office of a minister or bishop, for this explanation renders the passage obscure. We must make a distinction between holding an ecclesiastical office, and teaching in the place of public worship, for among the Jews, and likewise among the primitive Christians, the latter did not necessarily imply the former. In the Jewish synagogues, after a chapter had been read from the Bible, every man who had sufficient learning and ability was permitted to expound and to exhort: and the same custom prevailed in the primitive church. St. James therefore warns his readers against the abuse of this liberty, and advises them to be cautious how they spake in public, because it was extremely difficult to perform this task with propriety. St. James had probably been informed, that many of those who were so forward to deliver their sentiments, harangued only to gratify their vanity, and that they censured others, not so much to promote piety, as to gratify private hatred and envy. For this reason, after having censured the abuses of public speaking, he proceeds to the source of those abuses, namely, hatred and envy: and concludes ch. iv. 11. 12. with an exhortation, not to calumniate and unjustly judge our brethren.

Whether the Jewish converts, to whom St. James wrote his epistle, had places of worship apart from the synagogue, and in these places the abuses prevailed, which St. James censures; or whether they still met in the synagogue, and certain Christians abused the privilege of speaking, so as to create disorder, is a question, which has not yet been examined, and which I propose for future consideration. The latter is at least not impossible: for it appears from the Acts of the Apostles, that in the age, in which the Epistle of St. James was written, Christians, and even the apostles themselves were permitted to teach in the Jewish synagogues. Vol. iv. p. 297.

To this analysis, which exhibits the usual marks of our author's acuteness, the following remarks are subjoined.

Though St. James lived in Jerusalem, he has quoted the Old Testament, not according to the Hebrew text, but according to the Septuagint, whence it appears that he was very conversant with the Greek Bible. However there is one passage, namely, that quoted in ch. iv. 5. which has not yet been discovered in the Septuagint. I formerly made an attempt in my Latin notes to this epistle to point out the place: but I now perceive that the attempt was unsuccessful.

The style of this epistle is not more unclassical, than that of other books of the New Testament; and the thoughts, especially such as are figurative, are elegant and lively, so that St. James appears to have been endued with a poetical genius.

‘ 3. The language is more figurative, than that of a Greek epistle written by a classic author would be. It is sometimes poetical, sometimes oratorical, and has the usual marks of oriental composition.

‘ 4. There occur sometimes words, which a correct Greek writer would not have used in those places, for instance πορεια, ch. i. 11. and βαλθηεις, ch. i. 18. This perhaps may be ascribed to the circumstance, that the author was not much accustomed to write Greek.

‘ The materials are not methodically arranged : there are frequent transitions from one subject to another : and even where the same subject is continued, the connexion of one period with another is not always obvious. Sometimes St. James quits a subject, which he appears to have finished, and after he has discussed some other topic returns to the subject, which he had before quitted. This arrangement is very different from that of St. Paul's Epistles.

‘ 6. It is remarkable, that in this short epistle two passages occur, which are perfect hexameters, namely in ch. i. 17. iv. 4. Was St. James, who lived in Palestine, accustomed to read Greek verses : did he quote from Christian hymns in the Greek language : or what was the origin of these hexameters ?

‘ 7. Wetstein in his note to ch. iv. 5. has drawn a parallel between several passages in this epistle, and passages in the Wisdom of Solomon, which in Wetstein's opinion warrant the conclusion that St. James borrowed from this book. I wish that this question were examined more minutely, especially as I have hardly ever met with a passage in other parts of the New Testament, which was taken from the Wisdom of Solomon. However, it is not improbable, that St. James, as he lived in Jerusalem, where Chaldee was spoken, endeavoured to familiarise himself with the Greek language by studying the Greek Apocrypha more diligently, than the other writers of the New Testament appear to have done.’ Vol. iv. p. 300.

The professor, having thus generally stated the contents of this epistle, goes on to examine ‘ whether St. James's doctrine concerning faith and works contradicts St. Paul's doctrine of faith without works :—which having determined in the negative, he concludes the discussion by observing that St. James, when he wrote his epistle, had not seen St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans ; for, if he had, he would probably have delivered his doctrine relative to faith and works in other words, and would have avoided the use of terms which St. Paul had adopted in his doctrine of faith without works ; since he must have been aware that the use of the same terms would unavoidably create, at least, an apparent contradiction to the doctrine of St. Paul.

Having entered into the question ‘ of the time when the Epistle of St. James was written,’ and determined it, upon very probable grounds, to have been long before St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans,—agreeing with Bede, who refers it to



the scattering abroad of the converts soon after the death of St. Stephen, mentioned in Acts viii. 4.—the canonical authority of the epistle is more fully investigated, and the result stated in the following words.

‘The question, whether it is canonical, that is, whether we ought to receive it as a divine and infallible work, must, according to the principles which I have laid down in vol. i. ch. iii. sect. 2. depend on the previous question, whether the author was an apostle. If the James who wrote this epistle, was either the elder apostle James, the son of Zebedee, or the younger apostle James, the son of Alphæus, it is canonical. But if it was written by the James, who was brother in law of Christ, and not an apostle, we can have no proof of its inspiration and infallibility. Supernatural assistance was promised by Christ to the apostles alone: and therefore, though James, the brother in law of Christ, was a man of great eminence in the church of Jerusalem, though he took a principal part in the first council, which was held there, though he is called by St. Paul a pillar of the church, and is mentioned Gal. ii. 9. even before St. Peter and St. John, yet all these circumstances put together are not sufficient to prove that his writings were divinely inspired. I conclude therefore by repeating the assertion that, if the James, who wrote this epistle, was either the one or the other of the twelve apostles, who bore this name, it is canonical: but if not, it is not canonical.’  
Vol. iv. p. 314.

THE FIRST EPISTLE OF ST. PETER comes next in succession; and from the contents of it, accurately examined, it is with the highest probability concluded, that the apostle addressed himself to Jewish proselytes, then become converts to Christianity, in Pontus, Galatia, Cappadocia, Asia Minor, and Bithynia, though it be difficult at present to assign his real motive for addressing them, from the want of historical data.

Having stated his reasons for concluding that, before St. Peter wrote this epistle, he had read the Epistle of St. Paul to the Romans, Michaëlis inquires into the time of St. Peter's writing; determines it to have been not long before or after the year 60, upon the belief that Babylon is to be understood in its literal sense; whereas Lardner, taking it as the mystical name of Rome, fixes the date upon this latter belief between 63 and 65. Our author, having grounded his conclusion upon this foundation, proceeds in the next section to show, that Babylon, whence St. Peter dated his First Epistle, was either the ancient city of that name on the Euphrates, or Seleucia on the Tigris; but, concluding in favour of the former, attempts to confute by various arguments the interpretation of Babylon in a mystical sense. This being accomplished, he thus exhibits the contents and design of the epistle.

‘The object of this epistle is assigned by St. Peter himself, ch. v. 12. where he says, “I have written briefly, exhorting, and

testifying, that this is the true grace of God, wherein ye stand." But I have shewn in the first section of this chapter, that the persons, to whom he wrote, were uncircumcised Jewish proselytes, who had received the Christian faith. St. Peter wrote therefore to convince his readers, that, though they were of gentile origin, and had not been circumcised, they stood in the grace of God, as well as the Jewish and circumcised converts to Christianity.

' The manner, in which St. Peter has treated this question, is very different from that of St. Paul. For he has not divided his epistle into two distinct parts, the one doctrinal, the other practical, as St. Paul has usually done: but has interwoven the doctrines with the exhortations. This remarkable difference in their modes of thinking and writing deserves particularly to be noted. Several adversaries of Christianity have asserted, that St. Peter's doctrine, in respect to the Levitical law, was not the same with that of St. Paul, and that St. Peter maintained the necessity of this law even for the heathens. Now this assertion is not only contradicted by what we read of St. Peter in the Acts of the Apostles, but more especially by the very contents of his own epistle. In order therefore to support it with any colour of argument, the first step must be to deny that the epistle is genuine. It is true, that no one has hitherto had recourse to this pretext: but lest any one should have recourse to it in future, and even contend that St. Paul himself wrote this epistle in St. Peter's name in order to remove all suspicion of a difference in their doctrines, I have thought it not unnecessary to shew that St. Paul's manner is totally different from that, which is observable in the First Epistle of St. Peter.

' Another object, which St. Peter had in view, according to what he says, ch. v. 12. was, to exhort. Now the exhortations, which occur in this epistle, beside some occasional admonitions on idolatry and other heathen vices, may be reduced to the three following classes.

' 1. To patience in misfortunes; whence we may conclude that the Christians in Asia Minor were then in affliction: and in this respect the object of St. Peter's First Epistle agrees with that of St. James. These exhortations to patience St. Peter has not arranged systematically, but has introduced them in various places, as opportunities offered, namely, ch. i. 6—11. ii. 21—25. iii. 14.—iv. 7. iv. 12—19. v. 7—11. St. Paul would have placed them more methodically.

' 2. To avoid whatever might give just offence to the magistrates and their fellow citizens, and might confirm the slanderous reports of their adversaries. St. Peter speaks of slander in more than one place of this epistle; and he seems to have apprehended, that the magistrates would make an inquiry into the conduct of the Christians. He advises them therefore to be on their guard, to pay particular attention to their own conduct, that they, who spoke evil of them, might be put to silence. He enforces the duty of men toward the magistrates, and of wives toward their husbands: and recommends to the wives, whose husbands were yet unbelievers, not to convert them by disputation, but to win them by their own good conduct. Hence we may conclude, that one of the evil re-



ports, which St. Peter wished principally to remove, was, that the Christian religion contributed to excite sedition on the part of the men, and to cause disobedience on the part of the wives. The exhortations on this subject are delivered likewise in detached parts of the epistle, namely, ch. ii. 12—20. iii. 1—13. iv. 14—16. v. 7—9. In this last passage the word *διαβολος* denotes not “devil,” but “calumniator.”

‘ 3. To brotherly love. This exhortation is principally given in ch. i. 22.—ii. 10. and St. Peter enforces it by representing to his readers, that “they were born again, not of corruptible, but of incorruptible seed, by the word of God, which liveth and abideth for ever:” and that they were a chosen generation, a royal priesthood, a holy nation. But a similar exhortation occurs again, ch. iv. 8—11.’  
Vol. iv. p. 341.

A discussion next follows on St. Peter's mode of writing, and the peculiarities observable in his Greek style, as of particular importance in determining, by its internal characters, whether the Second Epistle, ascribed to him, be or be not authentic. Having, after a variety of learned and acute observations, determined the question in the affirmative, and turned the arguments against its authenticity into so many proofs for it, the author fixes its date to the year 64, and concludes his observations by stating its design to have been of a polemical nature; and that St. Peter wrote it against certain persons, who, though members of the church, denied the doctrine of a general judgement and a dissolution of the world: and these he pronounces, from various reasons, to have been Gnostics.

Having terminated in an interesting manner these researches, we now come to THE EPISTLE OF ST. JUDE. In inquiring after the author, the first question which presents itself is, Whether he were an apostle called Jude, or Jude the brother-in-law of Jesus? After much research, the decision is in favour of the latter. ‘That the Jude, who wrote our epistle, was the same person as the Jude whom the Evangelists call “brother of Jesus,”—that is, the son of Joseph by a former wife,’—Michaëlis declares to be the most defensible opinion, and adds:—

‘ On this supposition we may assign the reason, why the author called himself “brother of James:” for if he was the brother-in-law of Jesus, his brother James was the person, who during so many years had presided over the church at Jerusalem, was well known both to Jews and to Christians, and appears to have been more celebrated than either of the apostles, who were called James. It will be objected perhaps, that the very same reasons, which I have alleged, to shew that an apostle, of the name of Jude, would have assumed his proper title, will likewise shew that a person, who was called brother of Jesus, would have done the same, and have styled himself Jude the brother of Jesus. To this I answer, that if he was

the son of Joseph, not by Mary, but by a former wife, and Jude believed in the immaculate conception, he must have been sensible, that, though to all outward appearance he was brother-in-law of Jesus, since his own father was the husband of Jesus's mother, yet in reality he was no relation of Jesus. On the other hand, if Jude, called the brother of Jesus, was the son of Joseph, not by a former wife, but by Mary, as Herder asserts, I do not see, how the preceding objection can be answered. For, if Jesus and Jude had the same mother, Jude might, without the least impropriety, have styled himself 'brother of Jesus,' or 'brother of the Lord;' and this would have been a much more remarkable and distinguishing title, than that of 'brother of James.' Vol. iv. p. 366.

Respecting the persons to whom this epistle was addressed, as there are no traces to be discovered in it which can assist in determining, nor any thing in the address with which it commences, that applies more to one community of Christians where Greek was spoken, than another, it must still remain undecided. Nor can the time of its being written be with certainty settled. That it is of a later date than the Second Epistle of St. Peter may be safely asserted; but whether it were written between 64 and 66, as Lardner supposes; or between 70 and 75, according to Beausobre and L'Enfant; or in 71 or 72, as Dodwell and Cave contend; or so late as 90, which is Mill's opinion; Michaëlis professes himself unable to settle. However, he states it as probable that it was written prior to the destruction of Jerusalem, and consequently before 70; as, among the instances mentioned of divine vengeance, no allusion occurs to the destruction of that city. To show that the Epistle of St. Jude was written after the Second of St. Peter, the professor thus argues:—

' This appears from a comparison of the two epistles, which are so similar to each other both in sentiments and in expressions, as no two epistles could well be, unless the author of the one had read the epistle of the other. It is evident therefore, that St. Jude borrowed from St. Peter both expressions and arguments, to which he himself has made some few additions. Lardner indeed, though he admits the similarity of the two epistles, still thinks it a matter of doubt, whether St. Jude had ever seen the Second Epistle of St. Peter. Lardner's reason is, "that if St. Jude had formed a design of writing, and had met with an epistle of one of the Apostles, very suitable to his own thoughts and intentions, he would have forborne to write." To this argument I answer:

' 1. If the Epistle of St. Jude was inspired by the Holy Ghost, as Lardner admits, the Holy Ghost certainly knew, while he was dictating the Epistle to St. Jude, that an epistle of St. Peter, of a like import, already existed. And if the Holy Ghost, notwithstanding this knowledge, still thought that an epistle of St. Jude was not unnecessary, why shall we suppose that St. Jude himself would have been prevented from writing by the same knowledge?



‘ On the other hand, if the Epistle of St. Jude is not genuine, but is a forgery in his name, there is no improbability in the supposition, that the author derived his materials from an epistle of St. Peter, in the same manner, as the person, who forged the Epistle to the Laodiceans in the name of St. Paul, copied from apostolic writings.

‘ 2. The Second Epistle of St. Peter was addressed to the inhabitants of some particular countries: but the address of St. Jude’s epistle is general. St. Jude therefore might think it necessary to repeat for general use, what St. Peter had written only to certain communities.

‘ 3. The Epistle of St. Jude is not a bare copy of the Second Epistle of St. Peter: for in the former, not only several thoughts are more completely unravelled than in the latter, but several additions are made to what St. Peter had said; for instance in ver. 4, 5, 9—16.’ Vol. iv. p. 372.

The next section inquires into the canonical authority of this epistle, beginning with a view of the external evidence in its favour, principally derived from the three ancient fathers—Clement of Alexandria, Tertullian, and Origen; whence, after inferring that the external evidence is more in its favour than against it, he proceeds in the following section to show from its contents, that, though some of the objections may be answered, yet there is less reason to believe it of divine authority than Origen supposed. Referring to the discussion at large for its contents, we can only subjoin the professor’s deduction:

‘ I cannot therefore acknowledge that this epistle is canonical. And I have really some doubts whether it be not even a forgery, made in the name of Jude, by some person, who borrowed the chief part of his materials from the Second Epistle of St. Peter, and added some few of his own.’ Vol. iv. p. 395.

(To be continued.)

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ART. XI.—*Plans, and Views in Perspective, with Descriptions, of Buildings erected in England and Scotland: and also an Essay, to elucidate the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic Architecture, accompanied with Designs. By Robert Mitchell, Architect. Large Folio; plain, 3l. 3s.; coloured, 4l. 4s. Boards. Taylor. 1801.*

THIS magnificent work is printed in English and French, and accompanied with numerous plates. The author, we understand, has established a just reputation as a skilful architect; and his book is calculated to give additional reputation to his abilities.

It begins with an account of Selwood Park, between Staines and Windsor; which is followed by Heath-lane Lodge, at Twickenham, the seat of Mr. Swainson, well known for his vegetable syrop. The botanic garden and green-house are excellent. The other villas, of which there are views, &c. are Cottes-Brook in Northamptonshire, Moore Place in Hertfordshire, Preston Hall in the county of Edinburgh. There is also a plate of the Rotunda in Leicester Square, in which the Panorama is exhibited.

These descriptions are succeeded by an essay on the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic architecture, accompanied with plates. We shall extract the remarks on the last order.

• The Gothic is a style of architecture truly original. Whoever will attentively examine it, as found in buildings in its purest style, will certainly find that it has not any thing in common with either the Grecian or Roman architecture, in whatever constitutes their principles, or wherein they are distinguished by their forms. In the architecture of the Greeks and Romans, the columns were particularly admired for the happy effect of their proportions; but it will be found that little or no regard has been paid to these in the Gothic column, in which the shaft is almost never diminished; a practice, if applied to the Greek or Roman, would occasion them to appear masses of deformity. The plan of the antique column is always round; but the plan of the Gothic column is of almost every shape, and is frequently found in the form of an oblong lozenge; so that the column, when its plan is of this form, appears to increase, or lessen, as viewed on the longer or shorter diameter. In the most admired Gothic edifices, no regard appears to have been given to the proportion between the length of the shaft of the column and its diameter; there are no rules that can be deduced from the Gothic, as from the practice of the ancients, to fix the proportions of the Gothic column; neither are there determined intercolumniations, or fixed spaces between the columns, though these are found sometimes in different buildings to approach nearly: yet there are examples of the most extravagant difference; amongst these may be offered, the nave of the cathedral of York, and the aisles of the conventual church of Newark upon Trent, both Gothic buildings, deservedly admired, but which differ widely from one another, both in the proportion of their columns, as well as in the intercolumniations. The capitals of columns in the architecture of Greece give invariable distinctions to the several orders: in the Gothic they are varied at pleasure, without any relation to the diameter and length of the shafts, and are generally so diminutive as not to become essential parts of the columns. The horizontal lines which form the entablature of the Grecian and Roman orders, appear in a manner to interrupt the eye of the spectator, as if intended to arrest it till it has examined the beautiful proportions of the column, and thus in a manner limit an order, or the columns with their entablatures, as a composition distinct and unconnected with the other parts of the building.

In viewing a Gothic building, all the parts are found united,



whilst, in the Grecian or Roman architecture, they are cut asunder by the horizontal lines. The striking effects of a Gothic building are produced by taking in the whole, in all its relations; but, in the Greek and Roman, chiefly by examining the elegance and fine proportions of their parts.

‘ If we examine with attention the Gothic architecture, it will be discovered how admirably the parts are constructed for the eye to embrace the whole. The column is formed generally of an assemblage of vertical mouldings, or of a bundle of rods, which act as conductors to the eye. There is little or no obstacle from the capitals: the eye then glides along the pointed arch, and, not meeting with any interruption, embraces the upper parts of the building. In its progress the eye is aided by the vertical torus, or one of the rods which form the column: this pierces the capital, and ascends to the roof; and from which springs [*spring*] the ribs of the vaulting.

‘ The exterior of a Gothic building is equally well constructed to produce the same effects. In the plate 18, the columns, with their pointed arches, which form the portal, are conductors to the eye; the pediment, unlike to what we find it in the Grecian or Roman architecture, has not any horizontal cornice; the eye, from not being interrupted, rises to the point of the pediment, or to the apex of the pinnacle over it. The flanks of a cathedral produce the same effect; the eye is conducted by the buttresses, and ascends to the extremity of the pinnacles. It is in this manner, it will be found, that the numerous vertical lines, as well as the pyramidal forms in a Gothic building, produce the powerful effects, or irresistible impressions, made by the Gothic architecture. If we consider how scrupulous the ancients were in giving correct proportions to their columns, and that it was their unvaried opinion that these could not be dispensed with, unless by abandoning every thing that was graceful or beautiful in architecture: when we reflect that a style of architecture, as is the case in the Gothic, has since been invented, and established in practice, in which correct forms, or strict proportions, have been disregarded; and, notwithstanding which, effects are produced in this style of architecture, which, in certain cases, make stronger impressions upon the mind than can be effected by the Greek or Roman—it will then be confessed, that, in the whole circle of human knowledge, there is no example of so astonishing a revolution taking place in any art or science\*. Every man of unbiassed mind must from this perceive, that, in the extension of science, there is an absurdity to suppose that any thing is arrived at a perfection so as to preclude all attempts to advance it still further.

‘ The study of the Gothic would be found a source of pleasure to

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\* \* The Gothic architecture is a different style, in every point of view, from the Greek or Roman. The interior of a Gothic building will be found to differ, not only in the form of the columns, in the intercolumniations, in having pointed arches in place of an entablature, in the form of the vaulting, in the apertures in front of the galleries, but in the subordinate parts, the forms of the doors, windows, niches, and also in the decorations: and the exterior, in the buttresses, pinnacles, battlements, form of the roof, and pediments. Towers and spires in the Grecian architecture have been introduced from the Gothic, for these never were in practice with the ancients.’

those who delight in architecture, if investigated with candour, and just conceptions were formed of it.

'The Greek and Roman architecture will ever charm, from their beautiful forms, all persons of real taste; but compositions in these styles, from being the result of positive rules, are easily comprehended, and soon lose the attraction of novelty. Whilst the Gothic edifices are found to possess infinite variety, their compositions require more ingenuity and science to produce them, and are more difficult to be comprehended: from these circumstances it is that we never return to examine a Gothic structure without finding new subjects for contemplation.

'From the reign of Henry the Eighth, when the Gothic architecture was superseded by the introduction of the Grecian, a most violent prejudice has ever since prevailed against the Gothic; it has been subject to every misrepresentation in which architects of great celebrity have taken the lead; but this conduct, if impartially considered, has arisen from an erroneous principle, in condemning the Gothic architecture on account of its not having the forms and proportions found in the Greek or Roman. How unfair is this manner of proceeding, if the Gothic is considered an original style of architecture, which certainly it is, and wholly unconnected with any other\*! for surely it must be unreasonable to expect the same properties in two things which have not any resemblance to one another. The author, whilst investigating this subject, has endeavoured to remove every prejudice against this species of architecture, desirous that it may have its fair weight in the scale according to its real merits. Should this take place, little doubt can remain, that, with the aid of so much superiority in every science which now prevails, to what men possessed when the Gothic buildings were erected, this style of architecture would arrive at a perfection hitherto unknown.

'The author declines at present entering further into this subject, as he has been for some time employed in collecting materials for an extensive treatise upon the Gothic architecture, and which may see the light should this publication meet with a favourable reception.'

P. II.

We have omitted a few of the notes, as we only wished to preserve the author's leading ideas, which appear to us to be just. We do not regard the Gothic as a corruption of any other mode, but as an original species of architecture. To those who are versed in the monuments of the middle ages, it will probably occur that this order may have been derived from the ancient portable shrines, in which relics of saints were preserved, some of them as ancient as the ninth and tenth centuries, having the sharp arches, and other rudiments of what is called the Gothic architecture.

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\* The author had in view, in publishing this essay, that, in proving the Gothic to be an original style of architecture, its principles then must be sought for in itself, in place of having recourse to objects foreign to it; and, as such misconceptions are likely to mislead, they must consequently retard the progress that would otherwise take place in this style of architecture.'



The views in this work are in aquatinta, and unite force with elegance.

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ART. XII.—*Observations on the Cancerous Breast, consisting chiefly of original Correspondence between the Author and Dr. Baillie, Mr. Cline, Dr. Babington, Mr. Abernethy, and Dr. Stokes. Published by Permission of the Writers. With an introductory Letter to Mr. Pitcairn. By Joseph Adams, M. D. &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Rees. 1801.*

WE have often had occasion to remark that even the errors of authors may be useful, if distinguished by a bold originality, which starts from vulgar rules, and leads to untrodden paths. We mean not by this remark to insinuate that Dr. Adams's opinions are erroneous, but that he has left the beaten track;—with what success, time must determine.

The cause of cancers has eluded the penetration of pathologists; and, when we have considered them with most attention, we have found something so distant from common appearances, so unlike the changes which take place in any other circumstances in the animal œconomy, and so little connected with the effects of those causes whose operation we can perceive, that we have despaired of being able to elucidate the origin of the disease, or to mitigate it. Dr. Adams has attempted the former with some appearance of success; and the means of relief may perhaps follow. In the present work, nevertheless, the remedies are not greatly improved.

We find some difficulty in putting together the mangled limbs of his system, so disjointed, and scattered in different letters. We shall, however, first transcribe a clear comprehensive account of scirrhus tumors, from Dr. Baillie's letter.

‘ In parts which have become scirrhus, I have commonly observed the structure to consist of a very firm light brown substance, intersected by membranous or ligamentous septa, which run in various directions. The membranous septa are more numerous, and of greater thickness in some cases than in others. There is occasionally mixed with this structure a cartilaginous substance. The whole structure I have sometimes known to be cartilaginous, resembling very much a piece of common cartilage which had been previously rendered soft by being steeped for some time in a dissolving fluid.

‘ Ulcers are often formed in scirrhus structures, and fungous excrescences occasionally grow from them. Cysts containing a kind of serous fluid are sometimes found in scirrhus structure; but they seem to me frequently wanting. They occur, I believe, most commonly in the breast and testicle, and these glands in a scirrhus state I have had few opportunities of examining. From what I have observed, I should be inclined to believe, that cysts are only some-

times formed in a scirrhus structure, but are not essential to it. In this, however, I may be mistaken; and it may be found by a more minute observation, that the formation of cysts always constitutes a part of a scirrhus structure. If you should be able to establish this or any other general observation about the nature of scirrhus, it will give me very real satisfaction.

‘I have known a substance which possessed the common characters of scirrhus structure to be converted into a kind of bony matter. In this, I believe, that the earthy part will be generally found to be in a larger proportion to the animal part than in common bone. Muscular and membranous parts I have known to be affected with scirrhus, as well as those which are strictly glandular. A fatty membrane I have seen affected with the same disease. The fat was almost as hard as a piece of gristle.’ p. 32.

Our author, who has prefixed Mr. Hunter’s paper on hydatids, from the Transactions for improving Medical and Chirurgical Knowledge, supposes that cancers arise from a species of this animal. Living animals in the body do not excite suppuration; but, when they die, they act like any other extraneous matter. If a cancer be a collection of hydatids, the external ones dying, perhaps from pressure, excite suppuration, which is of course slow till all the tunics are separated; while nature, to preserve those still alive and more deeply seated, produces the fungous substance so constantly observed in cancerous tumors. Thus a comparatively quiet state continues till the neighbouring ones die; and the succession of new animals is continued in the deeper parts, to be in turn destroyed and thrown off by suppuration, till the repeated discharge sinks the unhappy sufferer. In this way our author supposes the appellation of *cancer* to be derived, from its going backward. This system is supported by the appearance of cancerous tumors recently extirpated; and we think we could add some striking pathological arguments in its support.

‘Unless we were together,’ says our author to Mr. Cline, ‘it would be difficult exactly to comprehend each other’s meaning; but as you seem to confound cavities with cysts, there must have been some inaccuracy in my language.

‘The more obvious cavities are of three kinds. The first is, I conceive, the common hydatid; and, as the amputated part has usually been soaked in water before it is examined, when a section is made through this cyst, its contents escape almost unobserved, the cyst still retaining its figure on account of the cartilaginous nature either of its tunic or the fungus in which it is imbedded. This therefore has the appearance of an empty cavity; but is, as your greater accuracy describes, “cells filled with serum.”

‘Another kind of cavity is often filled with a gelatinous substance of different consistence in different cavities, and often in the same. These appear to me carcinomatous hydatids that have gone through their different stages of birth, growth, and decay, and are retained



in the inclosing fungus, till either an operation or the gradual ulceration or sloughing of the fungus exposes them.

‘ The third kind of cavity, which shows itself without a very close examination, consists of cells filled with a dark bloody fluid, and which I take the liberty of calling *hydatid cruenta*. They are usually inclosed in a much looser and more sanguiferous fungus than either the lymphatic or carcinomatous hydatid.’ P. 55.

We find a distinction between common and carcinomatous hydatids; but, whether by the former Dr. Adams means the bloody hydatid, we cannot determine. There is, however, a scirrhus, which sometimes affects the testicle, and occasionally the lip, the appearance of which is granulated; and in the centre a kind of imperfect suppuration takes place. This the author, we suspect, confounds with steatoma, or considers it to be of the same nature. The steatoma, though apparently without life, or a circulating system, seems, in his opinion, to be capable of strong attachment, and separable only by long continued suppuration. The author’s observations respecting the distinction between what we may venture to call steatomatous and carcinomatous hydatids, we shall transcribe from his letter to Mr. Abernethy.

‘ You will recollect that as the separate existence of the common hydatid was not my discovery, so I have not presumed to say any thing in its defence: and as Dr. Baillie has given his definition of life attached to the most simple form of organisation, I have thought it sufficient to show that all the properties he requires, including motion, are discoverable in the fatty cells of the carcinomatous breast. Hence, though there is certainly a strong analogy between carcinoma, as I have described it, and steatoma, yet there is also a most important difference. Muscular contraction may be traced in the tunics of carcinomata by the elevation of their contents into a papillary form. This is not the case with steatoma. There are other differences to be stated hereafter; but as motion is considered the strongest proof of life, this is enough to show, that as the proofs of the vitality of carcinoma are not supported by, so they are not to fall on account of any analogy, however strong, between that and steatoma.’ P. 72.

‘ Thus without further preface I am free to acknowledge that not only steatoma, but atheroma and meliceris, as they have been called since the days of the Greek physicians, that is all encysted tumours, whose cyst and contents have no communicating branches with the surrounding blood-vessels, appear to me animalcular, or at least to have the same economy as has been admitted in *hydatid lymphatica*.

‘ That this is the case I conceive:

‘ First, Because they are all found in the same parts of the body, and often in the same individual tumour.

‘ Secondly, Because they are all free from any communicating branches in the surrounding blood-vessels.

- ‘ Thirdly, Because they all appear to have a power of growth, after which they die without otherwise affecting the body in which they existed, but by their local stimulus.
- ‘ Fourthly, Because the cyst containing either of them is incapable of suppuration, and subject to none of those laws, by which capsules formed to prevent the diffusion of matter in absæsi, or suppuration, or original tunics when preternaturally distended with fluid, are governed.
- ‘ Fifthly, Because a similar mode of multiplication may be traced in each.’ P. 74.

The proper nidus for hydatids are those parts which retain their life, and are not necessary for the support of the machine; as the mammæ, after the period of menstruation is over; the ovaria after the same time, &c. A blow, which destroys the action of the former, adapts it, in our author’s opinion, for the production of hydatids.

With respect to remedies, we do not perceive much advantage gained by this system. Arsenic, Dr. Adams thinks, succeeds chiefly in steatomas. He believes hemlock to have been sometimes useful; and that Mr. Hill’s singular success in the operation was from the greater number of his cases having been cancers of the lip, which he thinks more insulated than other scirrhi. Cancers, slow in their progress, are more successfully treated, either by the knife, or by internal remedies, than rapid ones.

Such is the outline of Dr. Adams’s doctrine,—too much broken, as we have remarked, by the epistolary form, and the different persons addressed. In his new edition of ‘*Morbid Poisons*,’ we trust he will bring it more successfully together; and we may then hazard some remarks on it. At present, however fanciful in appearance, we own it strikes us as probable, and explains many circumstances relative to cancers, hitherto unintelligible.

ART. XIII.—*Figures of Mosaic Pavements discovered at Horkstow in Lincolnshire. Imperial Quarto. 3l. 3s. Boards. White, 1801.*

THIS beautiful publication is introduced by the following advertisement.

‘ The plates of Mosaic pavements discovered at Horkstow, here offered to the public, are the beginning of a work, in which it is proposed to exhibit figures of the most remarkable Roman antiquities discovered in Great-Britain, under the title of *Reliquiæ Romanæ*, to be published in separate parts, four of which will make a volume. With the fourth part will be given a general title-page and table of contents.



‘ The second part, which is in a state of great forwardness, will consist of fourteen plates, representing the remains of temples, inscriptions, and other Roman antiquities, discovered at Bath.

‘ The third part will contain ten plates, representing several Mosaic pavements, discovered near Frampton in Dorsetshire, coloured after the originals.

‘ Of a work of this kind, it is impossible to ascertain the extent, as that must in a great measure depend on future discoveries.

‘ The antiquities which have not hitherto been engraved will be given first ; but it is also intended to introduce the most curious of those which have been published before.

‘ SAMUEL LYSONS.

‘ *Inner Temple, June 1, 1801.*

Then follows the list of plates, in number seven, all coloured with extreme accuracy and elegance. The description of the plates alone, occupying four pages of letter-press, we are induced to transcribe, as affording the best account of the subjects represented.

‘ **PLATE I**—Represents a view taken from Horkstow-hall in Lincolnshire, the seat of the honourable admiral Shirley. In the distance are seen the river Humber, and the Yorkshire coast opposite Wintringham and Ferriby sluice.

‘ The foreground shows the situation of a Mosaic pavement, accidentally discovered in the year 1796, in a close adjoining to the garden of Horkstow-hall, by labourers employed in making a kitchen garden : it lay at the depth of about three feet below the surface of the ground. Roman coins had been found several years before near the same spot.

‘ **PLATE II**.—A map showing the situation of the several Roman remains in the neighbourhood of Horkstow. The great Roman road called the High-street, or Old-street, leading from Lincoln to the Humber, passes within four miles of this place. Several Mosaic pavements and other antiquities have been found at Winterton and Roxby, each about four miles from Horkstow-hall.

‘ Considerable Roman remains have also been discovered at Broughton, about eight miles from the same place, and at Hibaldstow, four miles further. One of these last-mentioned places is supposed, by Horsley, to have been the station Prætorium in the first *iter* of Antonine’s Itinerary. Roman pottery and coins have been found at Santon. Yarborough camp, where Stukeley says that vast quantities of Roman coins have been found, is eight miles from Horkstow.

‘ The village of Horkstow is pleasantly situated under a range of hills which, for the space of several miles, form the eastern boundary of the flat country, through which the river Ankhölm runs at the distance of about a mile and a half south of the river Humber.

‘ The plan, fig. 2, at the corner of the map, shows the situation of the Mosaic pavements. At B was the larger pavement, the three

compartments of which are represented in plates *III*, *IV*, and *V*. At *C* was the fragment of another pavement, which is given in plate *VII*. At *D* part of a third was discovered, of a coarser kind, the tesserae being cubes of an inch: it had no other pattern than stripes of red and white.

‘*PLATE III*—Represents what remains of the compartment at the west end of the larger Mosaic pavement above mentioned. This compartment has originally consisted of a circle, eighteen feet six inches in diameter, divided into eight smaller compartments by radii proceeding from a small circle at the centre. This small circle contains a figure of Orpheus, with the Phrygian bonnet on his head, playing on his lyre, and attended by animals; a subject frequently represented on works of this kind. In the smaller compartments above mentioned, of which two only remain entire, are represented various birds and beasts. The circles and radii are formed by a single twisted guilloche of three colours, bluish-grey, red, and white: the larger circle is inclosed within a square border of a zig-zag pattern, bluish-grey and white; each of its spandrils appears to have been filled with a large head, having a red cross on each side; only one of these heads remains. Among the figures of animals which remain may be distinguished an elephant, a bear, and the fragment of a boar.

‘This pavement is composed of tesserae, for the most part cubes of about half an inch, of different colours, red, white, bluish-grey, dark-blue, and several shades of brown: the red, the dark-blue, and the brown, are of a composition; the grey and white are natural productions, the former being a kind of slate, and the latter of a hard calcareous substance, called calk, found near the spot. They are laid in mortar, on a stratum of coarse terras about six inches thick, beneath which is a stratum of coarse rubbish; but this pavement does not appear to have had the same regular strata which usually occur in other works of the same kind in this country; nor was there any appearance of subterraneous flues. Very slight traces of the walls remain round the pavement, only a small portion of the foundation being now left, from which these walls appear to have been formed of flint and calk, and to have been about two feet six inches wide.

‘*PLATE IV*.—The central compartment of the pavement is here figured, consisting of a circle fifteen feet three inches in diameter, inclosed within a border ornamented with a braid of four colours, dark-grey, red, light-brown, and white. The four spandrils are filled by figures of Titans, whose lower extremities end in serpents, and whose arms support the circle. This circle, and the radii by which it is divided into four equal parts, are formed by a single twisted guilloche. In the centre of these four compartments are small circles, containing Bacchanalian figures, on a dark-blue ground, on either side of which are Tritons, Nereids, Cupids, and marine monsters, on a red ground. Within these are figures of Genii dancing round a basket of flowers. The centre of this division of the pavement is unfortunately destroyed: it is most probable that the radii proceeded from a smaller circle near the centre, as in the compart-



ment of plate III, and as they are represented in the restored design, plate VI. The general effect of this compartment is different from any that I have seen; its chief peculiarity being the red ground, which was much used by the Romans for their paintings. Nereids and marine monsters on a red ground were found painted on some of the walls of Herculaneum.

‘**PLATE V**—Represents the compartment at the east end of the large pavement, which is more entire than any other part of this work. The subject is a chariot-race, performed by four bigæ, which appear to be driven round a platform in the centre, at the extremities of which are the metæ. The chariots are attended by two horsemen, one of whom is dismounted to assist a driver, who has lost a wheel, and is falling backwards. The saddle of this dismounted horseman has a high peak, a fashion which prevailed in the time of the lower empire.

‘The platform is quite plain, and contains none of the temples, altars, columns, or statues, which are commonly seen in ancient works of art representing the Circensian games: nor are the drivers distinguished by the colours of the four several factions of the circus. It is probable that this was designed for the representation of a provincial chariot race, where the distinction above alluded to might not have been observed.

‘**PLATE VI**.—The general design of the large pavement restored, the parts supplied being included within dotted lines. There is authority for the restoration of the greater part of the figures, and of all the ornaments, except those in the middle of the central compartment. From the inferior manner in which the mechanical part of this pavement is executed, it seems to have been the work of a late age, though parts of the design are by no means in a bad taste. It is not indeed improbable that it might have been restored from a more ancient one fallen to decay. The greater part of this pavement is likely to be preserved, admiral Shirley having erected a building over the most perfect and interesting parts of it.

‘**PLATE VII**—Shews the fragment of another Mosaic pavement, extending nineteen feet from the wall on the south side of the larger one above described. It appears to have been of considerable size, as the rudus on which it was laid extends twenty-three feet from the eastern extremity of the fragment. Channels were dug in several directions from these four pavements, with a view to further discoveries, but without success: it is probable, nevertheless, that these are the remains of some large building, though the other parts are entirely destroyed.

‘Fig. 2, a piece of alabaster, having military trophies rudely cut on it, dug up several years ago near the site of the pavements, and now in the possession of Mr. Bennet, of Horkstow.’

We warmly recommend this magnificent production of the press to men of opulence and taste.

ART. XIV.—*A general System of Nature, through the three grand Kingdoms of Animals, Vegetables, and Minerals; systematically divided into their several Classes, Orders, Genera, Species, and Varieties, with their Habitations, Manners, Economy, Structure, and Peculiarities. Translated from Gmelin's last Edition of the celebrated Systema Naturæ, by Sir Charles Linné. Amended and enlarged by the Improvements and Discoveries of later Naturalists and Societies; with appropriate Copper-plates. By William Turton, M.D. Author of the Medical Glossary. 4 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 10s. Lackington and Co. 1802.*

NATURAL history is now so generally studied, that the less learned reader must receive with pleasure every means which can facilitate his inquiries; and for this reason we examined with considerable satisfaction the Litchfield translation of the Vegetable System. Dr. Turton's design we must consequently approve of; as we do also of its execution; for, so far as we have been able to compare this work with Gmelin's edition of the System of Nature, the descriptions are translated with sufficient accuracy.

• In systematic arrangement, the student has this peculiar advantage, that by immediately arriving at the name, the whole of its known qualities are immediately displayed to him: but without a systematic classification, he wanders in obscurity and uncertainty; and must collect the whole of its habits and peculiarities; before he can ascertain the individual he is examining.

• The traveler, for example, who wishes to collect the more curious subjects of natural history, finds a bird, whose name, habits, and economy, he is desirous of investigating: from its conic, sharp-pointed bill, slender legs, and divided toes, he finds that it belongs to the order Passeres; and from its thick, strong, convex bill, with the lower mandible bent in at the edges, and the tongue abruptly cut off at the end, he refers it to the genus *Loxia* or Grosbeak; and running his eye over the specific differences, he immediately determines it, from its exactly answering the specific character—"body above brown, beneath yellowish white; crown and breast pale yellow; chin brown,"—to be the Philippine Grosbeak (*loxia Philippina*;) a little bird which he finds is a native of the Philippine islands, and endowed by nature with instinctive notions of preservation and comfort, nearly approaching to human intelligence; that it constructs a curious nest with the long fibres of plants or dry grass, and suspends it by a kind of cord, nearly half an ell long, from the end of a slender branch of a tree, that it may be inaccessible to snakes, and safe from the prying intrusion of the numerous monkeys which inhabit those regions: at the end of this cord is a gourd-shaped nest, divided into three apartments, the first of which is occupied by the male, the second by the female, and the third containing the young; and in the first apartment, where the male keeps watch while the female is hatching, is placed, on one side, a



little tough clay, and on the top of this clay is fixed a glow-worm, to afford its inhabitants light in the night time.

‘ That the English student may be put in possession of this vast treasure, comprehending and illustrating all nature through the three kingdoms of animals, vegetables, and minerals; I have undertaken a translation from the last edition of the *Systema Naturæ* of Linné, by Gmelin, amended and enlarged by the improvements and additions of later naturalists.

‘ The expediency of this translation has long been acknowledged, and the want of it often lamented; and it has been a principal view of the editor to deliver it in as intelligible and as useful a form as the nature of such a work will admit. The Linnæan terms are rendered as nearly as possible to the idiom of the English language; and a general explanatory dictionary of such as are peculiarly appropriate to the science, is affixed to the last volume. And for the convenience of such as wish to become acquainted with the productions of their own country, the different subjects of natural history, hitherto found in Great-Britain, will be pointed out by an asterisk.

‘ In the ornithological department, I have been chiefly assisted by the works of Dr. Latham; in entomology, by the last edition of the *System* of Fabricius; in that of vegetables, by the *Species Plantarum* of the learned and diligent Willdenow; and in all by the accurate Dr. Shaw, in his elegant and beautiful publication, the *Naturalist's Miscellany*.

‘ The numerous synonyms and references I have omitted; as they would so considerably have enlarged the bulk of the work, without adding a proportionate value. The various subjects of natural history are so accurately described, that no doubt can remain as to the individual.’ P. vi.

It is with regret, that, in a work of such labour and expense, we are compelled to blame any thing relating to it; but the omission of the references and synonyms is a serious objection. ‘ By arriving at the name,’ the ‘ whole of its known qualities ’ are said to be ‘ displayed.’ This would be true if the references and synonyms were added; but in the present work it is only in a very few instances, as in the *loxia Philippina*, that such information is subjoined; and it can be merely obtained in other cases, which are very rare, where the Linnæan name is the same with that affixed by authors who describe the properties and manners of the substance or animal. It has been the uniform answer to those who call the disciples of the Linnæan school mere nomenclators, that, by this mean, the species is ascertained, and the qualities, described by more copious natural-historians, thus limited to a given animal. The omission of the synonyms destroys the force of this reply. We see too with some regret a natural-historian repeat the idle tale of the glow-worm being affixed to the nest, in order to give light; he ought to have known that it gives light only by its own vital powers, and generally by some exertion. The obligations are equivocally introduced, as if the author were personally indebted for their communications. We find, however, the additions and amend-

ments so few, that the thanks might have been spared, if it had not been necessary to notice the names of the different naturalists. We are surprised that he has overlooked La Cépède and Sonnini. He ought, if he had introduced any amendments, to have been much more copious in the articles added, and the authors consulted.

The first volume contains the mammalia and fishes, the second and third the insects, and the fourth the worms. The British species are distinguished by an asterisk.

ART. XV.—*Observations on the medical and domestic Management of the Consumptive; on the Powers of Digitalis Purpurea; and on the Cure of Scrophula.* By Thomas Beddoes, M.D. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

DR. Beddoes again rings the changes on cows' breath, digitalis, and sometimes cicuta and mercury. They answer his purpose; and he should be contented.

In saccum gestit nummos demittere, posthac  
Securus. —————

We have said, and we repeat it, that we distrust his facts,—and for the best reasons. We have more than once witnessed the dying groans of patients whose cures are recorded, at a very little distance from the period of publication. These cures have been continually repeated, without a doubt or a suspicion. We have employed the digitalis and the opium—we have neither been rash nor weak enough to give the hemlock and mercury—with the *obvious* effects which Dr. Beddoes describes; but without the amendment in the complaint, which he leads us so confidently to expect: and we can add, in the most solemn manner, that, though we have seen the foxglove continued for months in a full dose, notwithstanding that it seemed somewhat to check the consumptive complaints, we have in no *one* instance seen it produce a radical or a permanently good effect. 'An anonymous writer' (he has said) 'is good for nothing as a witness.' We must reply, however, that he is a much better one than a prejudiced writer—much better than one whose prejudices and their source are so obvious. If the present writer be for a moment *anonymous*, Dr. Beddoes should know that *he*, as well as the journal in which he writes, has a reputation equal at least to his own; that neither would be compromised; and that there is no motive of interest or fame to induce the author, whoever he may be, to oppose what he thinks to be true. Let Dr. Beddoes look to those whom he has reason to know have been reviewers; and let him then say, whether, in their respective departments, there are superior characters? Because they were not known at the time, was what they said disregarded? Now they are known, is it more highly valued? and are periodical journals conducted with less ability than when men of the first character among those



whose names he is acquainted with held the pen? Dr. Beddoes knows that a reviewer will not step from behind the screen to confute him: but he ought to know also, that, after thus throwing down the gauntlet, his hasty, rash, and unfounded assertions will be treated with little ceremony, or their erroneous tendency be duly exposed.

With respect to the breath of cows, our author himself begins to hesitate; and seems inclined to prefer the hot-bed, the fermenting tanner's bark, to these beastly bedfellows—in other words, to prefer the steady warm temperature of an apartment artificially heated by fire and the air of fermenting vegetable matter. Persons must have little acquaintance with the feelings of consumptive patients, not to know what pleasure they experience from open air. What has been said of the effects of riding, of sailing, and of swinging? and what is the credit due to Dr. Beddoes beyond what Fuller, Sydenham, Gilchrist, and Carmichael Smith can claim? Each author, and every patient, is aware that the constant impulse of air, moderately cool, checks the hectic fever, and contributes to the relief experienced from these exercises. We repeat, therefore, that 'there is no evidence of any cure of confirmed consumption' by art. Nature has interposed, and a vomica has been completely spit up, when neither digitalis, hydrocarbonate, hemlock, nor mercury has been employed.

In scrofula, our author recommends muriat of lime; but the reader has seen how far Dr. Beddoes's assertions, or cases, are likely to influence us. The muriatic acid is saturated with lime; and a drachm is given as a medium dose. To young children, ten drops are exhibited three or four times a day.

Dr. Kinglake adds some cases and observations on the use of digitalis, and of analogous remedies in phthisis. This author seems to admit that the foxglove is less likely to be of service in the ulcerated state; and we well know how difficult the distinction is between the tubercular and catarrhal states. He allows also that no effect can be produced on the abscess, but through the medium of the constitution. He speaks, however, vaguely of moderate stimulants, nutritious diet, &c.; so that we are led to suspect a little of the leaven of Brunonism. In his examination of the *modus operandi* of digitalis, our suspicion is confirmed. He thinks it a narcotic stimulant:—we think the same, and that its narcotic powers correct the stimulating effects; so that, like the opposition of *plus* and *minus*, the ultimate result = 0. It is, nevertheless, probable that the narcotic power predominates; and then—*maior omnibus communis*. Some remarks from M. Hufeland on the use of *oleum hyoscyami* in hæmoptoe, and on external applications in phthisis, follow; and some later reports, not very satisfactory, of the state of patients whose cases are recorded, conclude the volume.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

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### POLITICS.

**ART. 16.**—*Remarks on the late Definitive Treaty of Peace, signed at Amiens March 25, 1802. By William Belsham. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1802.*

The first paragraph of this pamphlet did not tend to impress us with very favourable expectations of its merit. As the treaty of peace is well known to have been made, by a certain, and happily a very small, faction, a subject of gross misrepresentation, it is here inferred that it has also been 'the subject of misapprehension with the public in general.' So much the contrary, however, that we are inclined to believe there never was a treaty of peace so well understood by the public, or so generally welcomed; and that at no period of our history has the great body of the nation so firmly, or unanimously, concurred in declaring, 'that the ministers who concluded the peace deserve the praise and gratitude, and not the disapprobation and censure, of their fellow-citizens.' Yet, although this work be scarcely necessary to satisfy the bulk of the people as to the terms of the peace, and will be absolutely thrown away on the faction which opposes them, the remarks of the ingenious author may, nevertheless, occupy with advantage the attention of those who are in the habit of discussing political subjects. The general state of Europe is considered at the time of signing the preliminaries; the articles of the treaty are next discussed; and the chief objections to them are afterwards refuted.

To the inference drawn from the whole we give our cheerful assent,—

'—that the nation is under the highest obligation to those ministers who, entering into a negotiation for peace in the true spirit of conciliation, have with such wisdom, firmness, and moderation, brought to a felicitous conclusion a treaty attended with such numerous and complicated difficulties.' P. 24.

We are willing also to believe that 'the spirit of the present administration is by all impartial persons allowed to be very different, or rather totally opposite, to that of the last;'—and the characters of Mr. Pitt and lord Grenville are happily described in the following passages:

'To restore Mr. Pitt to his former pre-eminence of power, would be to entrust Phaëton a second time to guide the chariot of



the sun. And so long as lord Grenville remained in office, no rational hope could be entertained of a termination of the war.  
P. 26.

On the latter sentence proof sufficient is given, by examining the seven different negotiations in which that unhappy statesman has been engaged. And if they had 'amounted to seventy times seven, they must all, in his hands, have proved equally ineffectual.'

With the language and conduct of these unfortunate and injudicious ministers may be contrasted the sentiments of the present premier.

'When I look forward' (he said, with his usual mildness and sagacity,) to the prospect before us, it is with hope; and I trust that, by a prudent and vigilant œconomy, we shall be able to provide effectually for the expenses of the country. I think, if we are enabled permanently to preserve the blessings we enjoy, we shall accomplish this great object in the best manner, by a fixed determination not to attempt to interfere with any other country; but to be prepared always to vindicate our independence, and to maintain our honour.' P. 31.

With this sentiment, after a proper censure on the invectives against Bonaparte, the writer concludes—(it will be, we hope, the prevailing sentiment of the present cabinet, as it is of all the best politicians in the island!)—

'If we detach ourselves, as far as circumstances will admit, from the quarrels of the continent, and content ourselves with fighting our own battles upon our own element,—though peace will at all times be highly desirable,—should occasion arise to render war really just and necessary, there will be no reason to regard it as peculiarly dangerous or terrible.' P. 39.

ART. 17.—*A brief Address to the Electors of Great-Britain, on the approaching General Election. By an Elector. 8vo. 9d. Longman and Rees 1802.*

A well-meant, but ineffectual attempt, we fear, to stir up the electors of Great-Britain to a just sense of their duty, and to elect those candidates only who are likely to exercise the great trust reposed in them with fidelity. The root of the evil in our modern parliaments is the length of their duration; and as long as this remains, it is in vain to talk of the constitution, or to think of a diminution of the burdens under which the country groans. It is not in human nature—to adopt the phrase of a fallen minister—that, when the temptations to personal interest are so strong, representatives elected for seven years should continue to feel themselves connected in one common interest with their constituents: and from the time of the septennial act a gradual advance to the present state of things, towards the complete triumph of influence, is marked by facts too glaring to bear any longer controversy. The only mode, then, to return to the constitution, is, to shorten the duration of parliaments, and to give the electors an additional controul over their representatives; without

which our boasted constitution exists only in name, and not in reality. Chase then, says this writer, men of these sentiments, and the constitution may be restored; for 'England can never be ruined but by a parliament.'

ART. 18.—*An Historical Sketch of the Invasions, or Descents, upon the British Islands, from the Landing of William the Conqueror to the present Time. Taken from the French. With a Continuation by the Translator. Illustrated with a Chart of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the surrounding Coasts, from the Mediterranean to the North Sea, on which every Descent is correctly delineated.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1801.

From this slight sketch we may learn that an enemy has seldom attempted the invasion of this island without making good his landing; and, indeed, where there exists a choice of such a tract of sea-coast, no fleet whatever can secure a country from such an attack. The event of an invasion depends on the state of the country; for it is impossible for an enemy to land a sufficient body of troops to conquer it, unless the inhabitants are become despicable cowards, or are divided among themselves. The epithet of 'perfidious and designing,' applied to the enemy with which we have had to contend, is perfectly ridiculous; for, when we landed our own troops at Quiberon and Ostend, the French might have called us, with the same propriety, 'perfidious and designing.' The two hostile countries have invaded each other a sufficient number of times to show the folly of such predatory attacks; and, it is to be hoped, have gained wisdom enough to live in future contented, each with their respective advantages, without harassing themselves, and disturbing the peace of the world, for nothing.

## RELIGION.

ART. 19.—*Leslie's Short and easy Method with the Deists; wherein the Certainty of the Christian Religion is established by four infallible Marks. (In a Letter to a Friend.) To which are subjoined four additional Marks from the same Author's subsequent Tract, entitled, The Truth of Christianity demonstrated. Compressed by Francis Wrangham, M.A.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Mawman. 1802.

To convert the deists is not an easy task; but their numbers will diminish in proportion as Christians live agreeably to the precepts of their master. Hence the best object is to make the holy scriptures the basis of instruction, and to leave those who reject their authority to their own misconceptions. But though the deist be little likely to attend to the four marks here proposed to him, they may be usefully investigated by the Christian, who will thus see in a short compass those arguments which to a serious mind are irresistible. In republishing so well known a work, the editor was, we doubt not, actuated by the best principles; but we cannot see the propriety of making it the vehicle of a dedication to a young nobleman.



**ART. 20.**—*Proposals for a new Arrangement of the Revenue, and Residence of the Clergy.* By E. Poulter. 8vo. No Publisher's Name.

Among the numerous plans for meliorating the state of the clergy, few are written with so great a regard as this before us to the mutual interests of the clergy and laity. The notion of any peculiar sacredness attached to the persons or property of the church is justly set aside; and the institution is considered, as it ought to be, without reference to the pretended rights claimed by the Romish church.

'There is no foundation,' (says the writer) 'either in the principles or practices of our constitution in church and state, for considering the persons or property of the church, *more*, or *less*, sacred than those of the state. These opposite errors arise from the equal fallacies of supposing the *superiority*, or the *inferiority*, of either to the other; there being in fact, and in law, as far as concerns persons and property, an actual and legal equality between them; and the benefit of clergy, which was always confined to their *persons*, with the divine right which extended to their *professions*, have long since been totally done away, as exclusive protections; in the remains, or revival, of which invidious *past* distinctions can alone originate any false ideas of *present* difference.' p. 3.

After stating the disadvantages attendant on the present system of tithes, the following new arrangement is proposed.

'A *survey* and *valuation* to be procured under general sworn commissioners (partly lay, partly clerical) appointed by an act, for each county, of the tithes in each parish; to the amount of which, a composition in rent to be established by them, binding on *both* parties, until *either*, on account of supposed change in the value of the said tithes, shall demand a similar *re-survey*, at the expense of the party so *of right*, and *at will*, demanding it. The special commissioners in each instance (being not less than three of the general commissioners) to be nominated jointly by the parties concerned; that is, one by the parish, one by the incumbent, and the third to be agreed on by the other two.—The valuation to be procured with the utmost precision, by actual admeasurement where necessary, and otherwise. The security of the *actual tithes* to remain as it is, to the proprietor; which he may resort to, and enter upon, whenever the payment of the *composition* shall be in arrear, in the same manner as in the case of any other freehold on lease.' p. 7.

Some objections to this admirable plan are obviated; the mode of valuing the tithes is clearly laid down; and from the consideration of tithes our attention is carried to that of residence, which is to be enforced in a very simple, easy, and by no means disgraceful, manner. It is proposed that a register should be kept in every parish of the duty performed, as it is in cathedral churches. This register is to be examined constantly at the visitation; proper penalties are to be applied to defaulters; and the penalties paid by incumbents are to be divided in premiums to the curates. Thus the lower order

of the clergy will be benefited, and the higher will not be disgraced by actions from the poverty or baseness of informers. The exemptions from these penalties are judiciously stated; and, as the writer possesses considerable property and rank in the church, we are not without hopes that his suggestions may receive encouragement from both church and legislature.

ART. 21.—*A Sermon preached in the Chapel of the Foundling Hospital, on Sunday, the 25th of January, 1801. By the Rev. H. B. Wilson, A. M. &c. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1801.*

A eulogy on the institution; with a digression on the spirit of innovation, infidelity, treason, and sedition, &c. of the present times. The visit of the king to the hospital is, by a bold figure, supposed to be a subject of great satisfaction to 'the spirits of just men made perfect.' As, by the preface, however, it seems that the author was a candidate for an office in this excellent institution, and as this discourse was intended to display his qualifications for it, we will not minutely criticise its contents, which, at the least, prove his loyalty, and were, we cannot doubt, thought well calculated *ad captandos vulgus et præsides*.

ART. 22.—*A Sermon, preached in the Cathedral Church of Winchester, at the Summer Assizes, 1801, holden for the County of Southampton, before the Honorable Sir Simon Le Blanc, Knight, and the Honorable Sir Robert Graham, Knight. By John Davies, A. B. &c. of St. Mary Hall, Oxford. 4to. No Publisher's Name.*

On our theatres is introduced a character denominated Dr. Pangloss, who cannot utter a sentence without an authority; and, however trivial the remark, all the writers from Aristotle to Cocker become vouchers for its truth. In this discourse, Stillingfleet, Jortin, Beccaria, Ashton, Archer, Hoole, Sheppard, Porteus, Squire, Beattie, Wilberforce, Cotes, Grove, Leland, are introduced at the bottom of the page, to confirm an assertion in the text, evident in general to the meanest capacity; and the writer leaves the curious reader to find out the passage in the author quoted; for no reference is given to page or volume. Thus, that the patience of God is not to be measured by man's fretfulness, is to be learned from Stillingfleet; that a man of feeling laments the number of executions, is derived from Beccaria; Ashton teaches us, it seems, what we all learned in our schools—that *Nemo repente fuit turpissimus*; and Hoole is referred to for (what is so much better described by Pope) the hope of a savage in a future life. If the sermon should come to a second edition, we recommend that it may be enriched with a quarto volume of notes from the different authorities.

ART. 23.—*A Sermon occasioned by the Death of John, Earl of Clare, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, and Vice-Chancellor of the University. Delivered in the Chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, on Sunday the 7th of February, 1802. By the Rev. William Magee, D. D. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

A panegyric on the late lord Clare, with some well-deserved encomiums on several members of Trinity-college, lately deceased. The



principal character panegyrised is so differently spoken of, that time must allay the feuds in which he took so active a part, before the flattering picture here presented to the public can be acknowledged (if it ever can) as an accurate resemblance. It is ably drawn; but it must be recollected also that even the duke of Alva has been celebrated for his virtues in a funeral oration.

ART. 24.—*A Charge to the Reverend the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Bedford, delivered at the Easter Visitation, 1801, by the Reverend R. Shepherd, D. D. &c. 4to. 2s. Mawman. 1801.*

The success of the French in the late unhappy contest is very justly attributed by this sound divine, not to the trifling conspiracy of pretended philosophers, according to the superficial conjectures of the abbé Barruel, but to the just decrees of Providence to overthrow a religion in opposition to the doctrines of the Gospel. This great truth should be ever kept in mind by the protestant; and the warnings given in the course of the last hundred years, by those, whether believers or unbelievers, who reasoned on the state of religion in France, ought to have better prepared the inhabitants of this country for an event which was necessarily to precede the total destruction of popery. The inferences and exhortations drawn from the history of the last ten years deserve to be deeply fixed in the breast of every clergyman and minister of the Gospel, of every denomination, that they may attend to the doctrine which they teach, and make both their teaching and living correspond to its divine precepts.

ART. 25.—*A Sermon, preached before the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn, on Friday, February 13, 1801; being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a general Fast. By William Jackson, D. D. &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Elmsly. 1801.*

The former part of this discourse was calculated for the Sunday previous to the fast, as it enters into the justification of national intercession—a justification rather out of place—the moment after the act which could not be recalled had been performed. The exhortations at the conclusion, to every individual to attend to his personal conduct, are more appropriate; and we may add, that the discourse was published at the request of the society.

#### LAW.

ART. 26.—*Review of the Statutes and Ordinances of Assize, which have been established in England from the fourth Year of King John, 1202, to the thirty-seventh of his present Majesty. By G. Atwood, Esq. F. R. S. 4to. 5s. Egerton. 1801.*

Restrictions on the manufacture of bread have been established for so many centuries, that the prejudice is now current among us, that, without such restrictions, the public would be in danger of material injury from the venders of an article of prime necessity. This prejudice has, however, of late been opposed by men of enlightened minds; and, even in the house of commons, the utility of continuing the restrictions has been called in question. In fact, what reason can be given that the article of bread, any more than any other, would not,

if left to itself, find its own level? And how is it possible to draw up regulations which shall, with any tolerable degree of exactitude, settle the profits of a baker, when it depends upon so many circumstances—as the price, the weight, the quality of wheat, the conversion of it into flour, the demand for bran and pollards, the price of salt, labour, the capital of the persons employed in the different processes necessary before the bread can reach the hands of the consumer? The first ordinance for fixing the price of bread was established in the 4th of king John, 1202. This was naturally very imperfect; and, in the 51st of Henry III., it was superseded by one which has been the basis of subsequent regulations. With great care and attention the author of the work before us has examined every act relative to this subject, and, with his usual mathematical accuracy, placed it in the clearest light before the reader. It was probably drawn up with a view to the information of people in power, and will, we doubt not, meet with a favourable reception from the legislature—to every member of which we recommend it, as deserving his most serious consideration. We have no doubt ourselves, that it will be for the advantage of the community in general that the restrictions should be removed, and all the acts on the subject repealed; but if this should appear too bold a step, the simplification of the present process, which is not easily to be understood by our legislators, should be attempted.

‘ It is evident that the system of regulating the assize of bread, which had subsisted previously to the beginning of the 18th century, was much deranged by the reference to a market for flour, in fixing the assize of bread by the eighth of queen Anne. In consequence of which, although the baker has been authorised to receive the allowance of 12s. for baking a quarter of corn, including the expenses of peparing flour; yet those expenses are now, and have been for many years, defrayed by the mealman; who, on the other hand, receives the profits arising from the sale of the bran and refuse, which the former regulations of assize made a part of the baker’s profit. These, and other circumstances, plainly indicate the propriety of adjusting the derangements which have taken place in the laws of assize now in force, either by abolishing those laws altogether, or by substituting, instead of them, some regulation by which each allowance for manufacturing bread, and the principle of granting it, may be distinctly defined; with such provisions as are best suited to the circumstances of the times, and likely to form an efficient and permanent law.

‘ If the provision had been omitted in the statute of queen Anne, which enjoins the magistrates to have respect to the price of meal or flour in fixing the assize, the price of bread would have depended wholly on the price of wheat-grain: on which principle it had constantly been regulated during the five preceding centuries.

‘ This system would have been no less efficient, in consequence of a market for flour, which about this period had began to be established, provided the price of it had no influence in setting the assize of bread; for the baker might chuse whether it would be more to his advantage to purchase corn at the market, and to send it to



the next mill, where it might be ground and converted into flour, or to purchase the flour ready manufactured from a mealman.

'In this case, as in all similar dealings, each party would endeavour to make the most advantageous bargain in his power; from which competition alone it may reasonably be expected that the price of flour, considered as a market-commodity, would find its true level of price.' P. 54.

ART. 27.—*A full Report of the Proceedings on the second Trial, in the Cause Kerslake against Sage and others, Directors of the Westminster Life Insurance Office: including the Evidence and Opinions of Drs. Carmichael Smith, Crichton, Willich, Reynolds, Latham, and Blane, on Cases of Pulmonary Consumption. Faithfully taken in Short Hand. With an Appendix of Documents.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Row. 1802.

We are not again to try this cause; nor is it becoming in us to question the verdict of the jury, as we are not informed on what principles it was given: yet, as physicians, we must contend that a man who had had two hæmorrhages from the lungs, and was of a 'spare thin habit,' could not be pronounced in a perfect state of health; nor, in our opinion, was the warranty complied with. There is a pathological distinction, which we are somewhat surprised did not occur to the medical gentlemen examined. A person may be *within the limits of health*, and yet have the *seminium* of a dangerous disease. Can this person be said to be 'in health?' By no means; for common causes, to others innocent, may in time produce a fatal disorder.—On the other hand it will be said, how do *you* define health? We reply, that the term imports a power of resisting common causes of disease. If, for instance, a person be warranted to be in health, he is warranted to be proof against common colds; in general, against a temporary irregularity: at least it is implied that these shall have only the usual temporary effects of illness. The effects *may* be more lasting and formidable; but if this do not arise from some previous fixed cause, the warranty will still hold good. Were it otherwise, it would be necessary, as in the case before us, that Mr. Robson should not only have been certified as in good health, but that he should also have abstained from shooting, from wet, and from drinking. In fact, we are surprised how the positive assertions of Mr. Howard, to which Mr. Robson tacitly assented, could have been evaded.

## MEDICINE.

ART. 28.—*Practical Observations on the Gonorrhœa Virulenta: and a new Mode of treating that Disease recommended.* By Robert Barker. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1801.

Mr. Barker considers the gonorrhœa as a local disease not connected with syphilis, and disapproves of the general practice. In his condemnation; however, of laxatives and diuretics, he is somewhat unfair; for his arguments apply only to the active stimulating medicines of these classes. To astringent or sedative injections his objections are, we think, unsatisfactory. He contends that they produce stricture. This may indeed be said of the former, if vio-

lent and active, but not of the latter; and with respect to his suspicion of their conveying the virus into the bladder, it has not the slightest support: this effect has never been hinted at by the most violent opponents of injections; and those who have used them know how difficult it is to force any fluid far into the urethra. We find too, after all, our author recommending injections of tartarised antimony with camphor, on the principle of increasing the discharge, and thus throwing off the poison. This is exactly the same foundation on which the caustic alkali was formerly employed, and which we have often found successful. A scruple of camphor is united with six ounces of water, by means of a drachm and a half of gum-arabic, to which as much tartarised antimony is added. Some cases of the efficacy of this solution, used as an injection, are subjoined; but we think we have succeeded full as well, perhaps more quietly, in the common way.

ART. 29.—*A Companion to the Medicine Chest, or plain Directions for the Employment of various Medicines and Utensils contained in it, and for the Treatment of Diseases. By a Medical Practitioner. 8vo. Exton. 1802.*

This little compendium is useful for the purpose designed, and does not overstep common sense and common reason. The doses, however, notwithstanding the hints in the preface, are by no means small. Some of them, on the contrary, particularly of calomel, are rather rash than moderate.

#### AGRICULTURE, &c.

ART. 30.—*On the Appropriation and Inclosure of commonable and intermixed Lands; with the Heads of a Bill for that Purpose. Together with Remarks on the Outline of a Bill, by a Committee of the House of Lords, for the same Purpose. By Mr. Marshall. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Nicol. 1801.*

Our author traces with sufficient accuracy the origin of commonable and intermixed lands; adds the outlines of different acts for the purpose of inclosure, and recommends the adoption of the plan. We have often had occasion to offer our opinion on this subject, and of deprecating the very general and rapid attempts of eager projectors in this line.

ART. 31.—*An Enquiry concerning the Influence of Tithes upon Agriculture, whether in the Hands of the Clergy or the Laity. Together with some Thoughts respecting their Commutation. To which are added, Remarks upon the Animadversions of Mr. A. Young and his Correspondents relative to the Subject of Tithes; as well as those of the County Agricultural Surveyors employed under the Direction of the Board of Agriculture. By the Reverend John Howlett, Vicar of Great Dunmow, Essex. 8vo. 3s. Richardsons. 1801.*

In the first part of this inquiry Mr. Howlett is anxious to defend himself from the suspicion of being interested in the result, by a detail which we read with regret; for those 'who preach the Gospel should live by the Gospel.' He considers the subject, in many dif-



ferent views, with great candour and judgement ;—with so much of the former, indeed, that he furnishes strong arguments against his own cause. But he proves, very clearly, that the farmer is better treated by the clerical than by the lay impropiators. We knew an instance where much clamour was raised against a clergyman for his rate of tithes. He left the country; and the tithes were gathered by one of the farmers, paying the clergyman a certain sum; and this good man, who had excited the greatest clamour against the former rate, immediately augmented it fifty per cent.

Mr. Howlett indeed advances farther, and contends that, under clerical, and particularly under vicarial, management, tithes are not only no obstacle, but even an encouragement to agriculture :—this, we fear, he proves only by comparison. When he shows that agriculture flourishes even where tithes are taken in kind, he proves only that, in particular circumstances, strong and active exertions will rise superior to even great difficulties.

The remarks on the commutation of tithes are very judicious; and Mr. Howlett completely refutes various objections which have been made to plans of this kind, without, however, deciding on the whole. As taking away many disagreeable subjects of dispute, and removing a considerable odium from the clergy, we own that we wish a reasonable commutation could be adjusted on fair grounds, and with mutual consent. Our former objections, indeed, in a great degree remain, and we would rather now admit it on the plea of expedience. Leasing the tithes may obviate many objections; and this regulation is approved of by our author, who very satisfactorily replies to the arguments that have been adduced against the measure.

Mr. Howlett next examines Mr. Arthur Young's objections, scattered in different parts of his publications, and the incidental remarks of the county surveyors on the subject, with much propriety and acuteness. We cannot follow this miscellaneous detail, but shall copy the information contained in the Appendix. We are told that it comes 'from a quarter which renders their correct authenticity indubitable;'—but we must be allowed to remark, that while that 'quarter' is concealed, the information can rest only on the credit of Mr. Howlett.

'An inquiry has been made in the diocese of London, by several very respectable clergymen situated in different parts of the diocese, into the number of parishes in which the tithes are taken in kind by clergymen; and the result is, that, taking together the whole of the diocese, consisting of 568 parishes, it does not appear that there are more than fifteen in which the clergy take their tithes in kind.

'Most of the tithes in this diocese that are in the hands of laymen are taken in kind; and it is a remark made by a sensible clergyman in Essex, from his own knowledge and observation, that those parishes where the tithes are taken in kind are in the highest degree of cultivation; and that in the district where he resides, more pasture land has been broken up and converted into tillage in nine parishes where the great tithes are in lay hands, and taken in kind, than in any other nine parishes where the great tithes are the property of clergymen, and compounded for.' P. 118.

## EDUCATION.

ART. 32.—*The Elements of Book-keeping, both by single and double Entry: comprising a System of Merchants' Accounts, founded on real Business, arranged according to modern Practice, and adapted to the Use of Schools. By P. Kelly, &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1801.*

It may be justly doubted whether book-keeping should enter much into the exercises of a boy at school. If carried to any great extent, it must draw off his attention considerably from other important objects, which the occupations of future life will render him less willing and less able to pursue with equal advantage to himself; and if he be designed wholly for mercantile concerns, a very little instruction in the compting-house will qualify him for the employments he may be successively called upon to undertake. The methods, moreover, of compting-houses differ very much from each other; and the number of books required for the entrance and arrangement of articles depends considerably on the nature of each particular trade. At schools, however, a general insight into the principles of book-keeping may be acquired with propriety, and they should be taught in the simplest manner possible. The boy who receives his sixpence a week, and expends it in separate pennyworths, and occasionally has cash in hand at the expiration of his week, may acquire with facility the first rudiments of the art. Thence he may be instructed in a week's process in some retail business by simple entry, and be taught the use of the day-book and ledger, of which this work gives an easy instance. The day-book, journal, and ledger, in double entry, may occupy a little more of his attention; but though we highly approve of the specimen given in this work of the mode of double entry, we could have wished, for the reasons above given, that the number of articles had been much contracted. The use of other books occasionally employed in compting-houses is very well explained; and the whole is a complete proof of the skill of the writer, and his ability to instruct his pupils in the art. A concise history of book-keeping is added, closing with that famous deception on the public, by which several thousands of pounds were obtained by subscription from merchants and trades-people, for a work for which as many pence would have been too great a reward for the writer. The reputation of the author of this work makes it needless for us to point out its superiority over its boasted predecessor, and the advantage it affords to schoolmasters by whom book-keeping is made a part of their instruction.

ART. 33.—*New Orthographical Exercises, for the Use of English Seminaries, in five Parts: in which the useful, the moral, and entertaining, of our best Writers, are combined with a certain and easy Mode of acquiring a just Pronunciation of the Mother Tongue, as it is spoken in the best Circles. Preceded by an Introduction, and interspersed with several Pieces on the Art of reading and speaking English with Propriety. By Charles Allen. 12mo. 1s. 3d. Bound. West and Hughes.*

To spell with propriety is an art to be acquired only by constant



application and exercise; and as soon as a child can use his pen with facility, some such work as the present should be put into his hands; of which if he write out a dozen lines every day, he will, at the end of the usual term for education, have not only mastered every difficulty in orthography, but have formed his taste for good composition. The exercises are well selected, and the manner in which spelling is frequently perverted is very judicious. The teacher, while he points out to his scholar the true mode of spelling a word, will not fail to dwell sometimes on the beauty and propriety of the sentiment which has been copied; and thus much important information on morality and the conduct of life will be communicated to the youthful mind. We repeat it, therefore, that the present, or some work similar to it, ought to be used in every seminary of education.

ART. 34.—*A Treatise on Astronomy, in which the Elements of the Science are deduced in a natural Order, from the Appearances of the Heavens to an Observer on the Earth; demonstrated on Mathematical Principles, and explained by an Application to the various Phenomena. By Olinthus Gregory, Teacher of the Mathematics, Cambridge. 15s. Boards. Kearsley. 1802.*

The *Principia* of Sir Isaac Newton are to physical astronomy what Euclid is to geometry; and however useful many treatises on the former subject may be, the shortest and easiest method of understanding them is to ascend to the fountain-head; and the thirst after knowledge is best quenched at the source from which so many rivulets are derived. To one who has thus studied the theory of the heavenly motions, nothing in this volume will afford any difficulty; but it is not calculated for the inferior mathematician. The writer himself indeed requires a considerable degree of previous study from his reader; he must be acquainted with 'the principles of algebra, plane and spherical geometry and trigonometry, conic sections, mechanics, optics, and the projection of the sphere.' A student thus furnished will here find a very useful compilation; and he will be made acquainted with the names and discoveries of later writers, whose works are either difficult of access, or very expensive: but we must intimate, that to this order of students a diffusive style is by no means adapted; abundance of popular reflexion is superfluous; and an arrangement entirely scientific would be more desirable. If, however, the work be not at all suited to the generality of readers, and require much pruning, lopping, and arranging for those for whom it is peculiarly designed, it is an ample testimony to the talents of the writer, and an unequivocal proof that he is well qualified to teach the science of which he is a professor.

#### POETRY.

ART. 35.—*The Holy Land: a Poem. By Francis Wrangham, M.A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Mawman.*

It is curious to observe how little of memorable merit has ever been produced for the Seatonian prize. We read the unsuccessful poem of Emily, and extracts from the Last Judgement of Dr. Glynn.

Smart's will last as long as Dr. Anderson's edition of the Poet. The rest, should the manufactory for the regeneration of paper continue, will soon be in request with the collectors. So able and well qualified a candidate as Mr. Wrangham rarely appears; his versification and language are stately; and every where we perceive a high polish, which only patient and careful correction could have given. He pays a just compliment to Mr. Tweddell, whose death we also, in common with his friends and the friends of literature, lament.

' There in his early bloom, 'mid classic dust  
Once warm with grace and genius like his own,  
Her favourite sleeps; whom far from Granta's bowers  
To *Attic* fields the thirst of learning drew,  
Studious to cull the wise, and fair, and good.  
He could have taught the echoes of old Greece  
(Silent, since Freedom fled) their ancient strains  
Of liberty and virtue, to his soul  
Strains most congenial! But high heaven forbade.

' Rest, youth beloved! most blest, if to thy shade  
'Tis given to know what mighty forms of chiefs,  
Whose deathless deeds oft dwelt upon thy tongue;  
Of patriots, bold like thee, with ardent tone  
T' assert their country's cause; of bards, whose verse  
Thy Lesbian lyre could emulate so well,  
Repose in tombs contiguous! Rest, loved youth,  
In thine own Athens laid! secure of fame,  
While worth and science win the world's applause.' p. 8.

The concluding passage is more beautifully expressed in the Latin lines whence Mr. Wrangham has imitated it.

' Frustra Fama tuo sonat sepulcro;  
Heu! frustra, juvenis, mea ac tuorum  
Manat lacryma! Tu nequis redire;  
Nec spes ulla dolorve tangit ultra.  
Felix, si tibi forsán inter umbras  
Persentiscere fas sit, ossa tecum  
Illo cespite quanta conquiescant;  
Tuz te quoque quod tegant Athenæ!' p. 9.

The following passage has great merit.

' Whether the Gaul, on Egypt's ravaged strand  
Still lingering, with his scorpion thong shall scourge  
Her turban'd foe; and, infidel himself,  
Wage with unconscious arm the war of heaven;  
Or the stern Muscovite with zeal's fierce flame  
Purge her foul stain—unknown. In tenfold night  
Sleeps the mysterious secret; sought in vain  
For many an age, though Knowledge lent her lamp,  
And lynx-eyed Genius join'd th' exploring throng.

' Yes! rise it will, Judæa, that blest morn  
In Time's full lapse (so rapt Isaiah sung)



Which to thy renovated plains shall give  
 Their ancient lords. Imperial fortune still,  
 If right the bard peruse the mystic strain,  
 Waits thee, and thousand years of sceptred joy.  
 With furtive step the fated hour steals on,  
 Like midnight thief, when from thy holy mount  
 Sorrow's shrill cry, and labour's needless toil,  
 And servitude shall cease; when from above,  
 On living sapphire seated and begirt  
 With clustering cherubim, whose blaze outvies  
 Meridian suns, through heaven's disparting arch  
 Thy recognised Messiah shall descend;  
 In royal Salem fix his central throne,  
 And rule with golden sway the circling world.' P. 12.

In the concluding paragraph Mr. Wrangham classes Seaton with Sir Isaac Newton in heaven. Some mention should perhaps, in decent gratitude, be made of a gentleman who gave his 'Kislingbury estate to the university of Cambridge for ever;—but *this* is a little too much. Even Mr. Paley has no business in such company.

ART. 36.—*Poverty; a Poem. With several others, on various Subjects, chiefly Religious and Moral. By Charles A. Allnatt. 8vo. 2s. Matthews. 1801.*

'On a much deformed, but very pious Man.

'Behold, our God with anxious care  
 Protects the very sparrow;  
 Nor scorns the crippled, maim'd, and halt,  
 Nor scorns poor Tommy Yarrow.

'The man of sense, the epicure  
 Full gorg'd with fat and marrow,  
 Knows not what dainties grace affords  
 To feast poor Tommy Yarrow.

'He need not envy mighty kings,  
 A Cæsar or a Pharaoh;  
 There is a golden crown reserv'd  
 To crown poor Tommy Yarrow.

'Cæsar's dominions were confin'd,  
 And Pharaoh's were but narrow;  
 A boundless empire waits the rule  
 Of palsied Tommy Yarrow.

'While thousands of a comely form  
 Lie down in endless sorrow,  
 Distorted sinners sav'd by grace  
 Shall shout with Tommy Yarrow.' P. 31.

‘ *Parliamentary Elections improved.*

‘ I start a *candidate* for grace,  
And trust to gain my cause ;  
For Jesu’s blood mine *interest* is,  
My *heritage* his laws.

‘ Thou art mine *agent*, Holy Ghost,  
Whose all sufficient aid  
Shall make me strong against my foes,  
Shall make my foes afraid.

‘ Free thine election is, O Lord,  
Nor would I *bribe* thy love  
With any thing that I can give  
To gain a *seat* above.

‘ Love, thou shalt *qualify* my soul,  
Obedience, hope, and faith :  
But, Lord, the *votes* on which I trust  
Thy merits are and death.

‘ And should I be *return’d* at last  
Partaker of thy grace,  
Amid the *synod* of thy saints  
I’ll humbly take my *place*.’ P. 33.

Mr. Allnatt has evidently been moved by the spirit ; but, unhappily, there are lying spirits both of prophecy and poetry.

ART. 37.—*Poems and Ballads.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Mawman.

The ballads are ill-planned stories, related in modern language. The author says they are principally indebted, for the little share of merit they possess, to Ossian and miss Burney :—we more frequently, in their perusal, recollect Mr. Bowles’s manner. The double rhyme is often employed, and not without success.

‘ The drum “ the signal to prepare ” was beating,  
Responsive to the mellow bugle’s sound ;  
The outposts, charg’d, were in alarm retreating ;  
And the struck tents were levell’d to the ground :

‘ Each anxious soldier, earnest in his duty,  
Prepar’d in action for the warrior’s part ;  
Save where the tearful eye of sorrowing beauty  
Claim’d the soft feelings of a lover’s heart.

‘ Save where a moment’s sad indulgence seizing,  
(The ardor of his soul the while repress)  
On loveliness o’ercast with anguish gazing,  
Lavallan clasp’d his Julia to his breast.

“ My Julia, cease this agonising sorrow !  
Oh ! cease,” he cry’d, “ these accents of despair !  
No death-wing’d pow’r the whistling ball can borrow,  
Since I am shielded by an angel’s pray’r.



" Then fearless to the pealing cannon listen,  
Nor let its thunder aught thy soul appal;  
The threat'ning swords that o'er my head may glisten,  
Shall, conscious of thy sorrow, hurtless fall.

" At Freedom's call arous'd, I seek protection  
For thee, and those we may ere long survey;  
Else the sweet pledge thou bear'st of our affection  
Would curse the cause that wak'd it to the day.

" Yes! from the tyrant's pow'r to heav'n appealing,  
Each pang increasing with increasing years,  
Oh! he would curse, in slav'ry's bitt'rest feeling,  
His father's weakness, and his mother's tears." P. 8.

ART. 38.—*John the Baptist; a Poem, by Joseph Cottle.* 8vo. 1s.  
Longman and Rees. 1802.

A poem with this title was published by Mr. Cottle in his first volume—the same in structure as the piece before us, but in language and versification very inferior. It is the address of the Baptist to the Jews, a discourse in highly polished verse, of which '*Repent ye, for the kingdom of heaven is at hand,*' furnishes the text. The lines which we quote are all full and harmonious, and some of them are entitled to a higher praise.

' Glance on the skies above, the earth beneath,  
See sportive life in forms ten thousand breathe;  
Amid the sun-beam's warmth, what myriads fair  
Charm the mused ear, and wanton through the air:  
Say what creative energy of thought  
This countless train of shapes to being brought;  
All form'd to serve some destin'd end aright—  
Beyond the verge of man's contracted sight!  
Say, Oh ye hosts! through heaven's ethereal space,  
What secret hand supports the feather'd race;  
What feeling heart provides a full supply  
For each that treads the earth or cleaves the sky?  
Know that they all, Creation's common friend!  
First sprang from God, and still on God depend!  
From guiding comets round the orb of day,  
From pointing storms their desolating way,  
His ear regards the hungry raven's call!  
His eye, unsleeping, marks the sparrow fall!

' If Nature's lower works your wonder raise,  
If finite objects claim your lofty praise;  
Lift your astonish'd view to scenes on high!—  
Behold the marshall'd offspring of the sky!  
See rolling spheres, in order'd paths abide!  
See countless worlds thro' heaven's vast concave glide!  
Stars, ever glorious, blazing on their way,  
Or, dimly clad in Fancy's doubtful ray!  
And these but atoms of that boundless whole  
Which ether sweeps beyond the visual pole!

‘ Know you, O list’ning tribes, to what you tend?  
 Seek you to know where Life her race shall end?  
 Count you the lingering moments long, that bind  
 To earth’s low confines man’s immortal mind?  
 This world, unworthy, you too highly rate—  
 A thorn-strew’d passage to a better state!  
 The joys which now to earth your spirits chain,  
 Compared with joys eternal, are but pain!

‘ Amid the still and solemn shades of night,  
 Or, when the dawn first bursts upon the sight;  
 At noon-day, or when eve, in splendor dress’d,  
 Casts her broad shadows o’er a world at rest!  
 Do never in your souls spontaneous rise  
 Big thoughts of man’s unfolding destinies?  
 Obscure conceptions, dignified and great,  
 Of what *may* follow this our mortal state?  
 Although to visionary scenes resign’d,  
 The rays of truth then glimmer on the mind;  
 The spirit learns, as thus it upward springs,  
 Its grandeur in the scale of living things;  
 Darts, like the flash that lights the midnight sky,  
 A lucid glance through dark futurity;  
 Sees what a moment life and time appear  
 Contrasted with the one eternal year;  
 And lifts, to nobler worlds, its vast desires,  
 Where Fancy flags her wing! and Thought expires!’ P. 14.

We wish the subject had been more generally interesting;—that there had been more narrative and less declamation.

ART. 39.—*Thoughts on Happiness; a Poem, in four Books.* 8vo.  
 3s. sewed. Rivingtons. 1802.

‘ When the caliph Omar was petitioned to spare the celebrated library at Alexandria, he replied, “ If those books contain the same doctrine with the Koran, they can be of no use, because the Koran contains all necessary truths: but if they contain any thing contrary to that book, they ought not to be suffered,” and immediately ordered them all to be burnt.

‘ On the caliph’s mode of reasoning, every book in favour of Christianity, except the Bible, might be condemned. It cannot, however, be matter of surprise, if they who are deeply convinced of the superlative importance of the Gospel in promoting both the present and the eternal happiness of man, should be zealous to cast their mite into the sacred treasury. Such persons as despise the religion of Christ, will, perhaps, despise its advocates. But still, the same right must be allowed to the friends of Revelation, which has been so largely enjoyed, but so greatly misapplied, by its enemies; that of employing every species of writing in support of their cause. If, therefore, verse has been made use of to invalidate the truth of Revelation, it may fairly be used (however unskillfully) in an attempt to shew, that the Gospel scheme is that alone on which all the happiness attainable in this life can be founded.



‘ He, whose life and conduct may perhaps not be altogether agreeable to those truths which he nevertheless believes, will readily pardon even the most feeble attempt to fix his attention on “ the one thing needful.”

‘ The more perfect Christian, to whom these lesser incitements to religion may be more unnecessary, whatever he may be inclined to think of the manner in which the present work is executed, will not be averse to allow that meed which the author is alone anxious to obtain—the credit of having meant well.’ P. i.

We quote a specimen of the poem.

‘ Ah ! how shall man of boundless mercy sing ;  
How, uninspir’d, attune the hallow’d string  
To heav’n-born themes, which to those lips belong  
That breath’d the majesty of sacred song ?  
See then Isaiah’s bold prophetic page,  
Proclaim the Saviour to each distant age ;  
See future ages each dark speech unfold,  
And work those wonders which the seer foretold.  
Then turn with humble rapture to explore,  
The sweet simplicity of Gospel lore ;  
See, thro’ the blood of the eternal Son,  
God’s gracious mercies all compris’d in one.

‘ ’Tis true, the Almighty pass’d his dread decree,  
That sin should lead to death and misery :  
Yet Mercy sent the eternal Son of God,  
Who for our sins these earthly regions trod ;  
For us the atoning sacrifice was made,  
And all the vengeance of the Almighty stay’d ;  
Whose bright example shines divinely meek,  
Whose words e’en yet in mildest accents speak :  
Whose precepts, form’d the human heart to sway,  
All point to heav’n, where he prescrib’d the way.  
“ Ho ! ye that thirst ; come taste the living spring,  
Stay not or gold or costly gems to bring ;  
Freely I give from my unbounded store,  
And he who drinks with me shall thirst no more.”

‘ Now let the sinner lift the suppliant eye,  
Let Hope now heave the penitential sigh ;  
For lo ! a Saviour to mankind is giv’n,  
And Mercy opens wide the gate that leads to heav’n.’ P. 89.

These are smooth lines ; but the ideas which they convey are surely better adapted for a sermon than a poem.

ART. 40.—*L’Infedeltà punita, Leggenda Erotico-Tragica di Gaetano Polidori.* 8vo. 2s. Dulau, 1802.

A foolish ballad !—Lasindo deserts Doris ; she retires into a wilderness ; a Fœtér finds her there, and is talking with her, when Lasindo comes as a penitent to implore her forgiveness. The

hunter, guessing who he is, attacks him in combat, but is thrown to the ground; his hounds, however, fall upon Lasindo, and kill him.

## MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 41.—*Political Calumny refuted: addressed to the Inhabitants of Woodbridge; containing an Extract of a Sermon, preached at Butley, on the Fast-Day, 1793: a Sermon, preached at Otley, on the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving, on account of our Naval Victories: and solitary Musings (in Verse) on the Being of a God, Providence, and the French Revolution. By the Rev. John Black. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.*

The author is a candidate for the mastership of the free grammar-school in the town of Woodbridge. To injure him in his pursuit—according to the abominable system supported by the late administration—various calumnies were propagated, representing him as inimical to government; and, in support of his character, this work is dedicated to the inhabitants of the town near or in which he lives. As far as we can judge of a man's sentiments by his words, it carries a complete refutation of the crimes laid to his charge; and it must grieve every true lover of his country to perceive that such a profligate spirit has taken possession of so many of its inhabitants—a spirit which will not scruple to use the basest arts to injure a competitor in the object of his pursuit.

With the peace, it is to be hoped that the ancient liberality of Englishmen will revive; and the present administration, by discouraging the herds of spies and informers—the greatest pests to morals and government—will possess itself of the confidence of the country. The writer would do well to expose the names of those persons who have so wantonly traduced his character, that they may meet with the contempt they have so justly merited, and by such example deter others from thus indulging in a habit of slandering their neighbours.

ART. 42.—*A Letter addressed to Rowland Burdon, Esq. M.P. on the present State of the carrying Part of the Coal Trade. With Tables of several of the Duties on Coals received by the Corporation of the City of London. By Nathaniel Atcheson, F.A.S. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Richardsons. 1802.*

According to the account with which we are here presented, the coal-trade cannot be carried on much longer; and we must soon be content to warm ourselves with blazing straw in our boots, instead of indulging ourselves with the luxury of a coal fire. We have before us the history of a ship of 500 tons burden, that brought to market 'the very best coals,' and yet, without estimating the common wear and tear of the voyage, was a loser by its cargo to the amount of 34*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*;—and such, says our author, is the 'real state of a trade which has engaged so much of the public attention.' If this statement be to be depended on, the ship-owners cannot evidently bear any further impost; and the corporation of the city of London



will scarcely attempt to drive them to despair. But we are not accustomed to pay much attention to traders, when stating their own losses; though we agree entirely with the writer, that, if the corporation of London raise an immense sum by the orphans' duty, 'it is but reasonable that the ship-owners interested in the coal-trade, who pay it, should know in what manner and to what purposes it is applied.' Whenever this account 'is refused or evaded, it must be suspected that all is not right.' The chief object of the letter is to draw this account from the chamberlain by a vote of the house of commons: and as all money-concerns cannot be made too public, we shall be glad to hear that the house has listened to this reasonable proposal.

ART. 43. — *The British Commissary, in two Parts. — Part I. a System for the British Commissariat on Foreign Service. — Part II. an Essay towards ascertaining the Use and Duties of a Commissariat Staff in England. By Havilland le Mesurier, Esq. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1801.*

The operations of war are now carried on upon such an extensive scale, that a defect in any of its branches may be in the highest degree injurious to the service. Hence the education of an officer is not a thing, as it was formerly esteemed, entirely to be neglected; nor is every ignorant idler or truant apprentice sufficiently qualified, if he have strength of arm to carry a pair of colours. So sensible is government, and particularly the distinguished character who presides at the head of the military department, of the necessity of instruction to those in command, that a military academy is formed, with mathematical professors, to carry a corps of officers through a complete course of intellectual discipline, and to qualify a number of lads, in succession, to be candidates to occupy every vacancy. In such an institution, and indeed in the library of every regiment, this book deserves a place. It will be found useful to those who are not in the immediate department of which it treats; and to a British commissary it may be considered as a complete body of instructions. In one sense, it has been happy for the English nation that a very great proficiency in this art has not been so requisite as in the Austrian, the French, and the new Prussian services; and we could wish that neither British pay nor British blood might ever again be expended on the continent: but as such a wish is evidently not to be attained, a commissary-staff should always be prepared with a fit knowledge of their duties in time of peace, that, on taking the field, they may not require the experience of innumerable disasters to instruct them in their office. Every part of their duty is laid down in this work in a clear intelligible manner; tables are given, taken from those employed in actual service; royal commissions, and ministerial instructions to commissaries, are copied out; and the plates on the forming of ovens, with the description of its parts, should be studied by every officer of a marching regiment. The work is dedicated, by permission, to the duke of York; and, under his auspices, we cannot doubt that it will be widely circulated in the British army.

ART. 44.—*Truths, respecting Mrs. Hannah More's Meeting-Houses, and the Conduct of her Followers; addressed to the Curate of Blagdon; by Edward Spencer. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1802.*

'I have ever regarded the institution of Sunday-schools, under any shape, with a very jealous eye; it appears to be an innovation (and all innovations may be dangerous) in the literary as well as religious systems of the country, that requires as yet a good deal more experience than we are at present in possession of, to prove whether they will eventually, under the best of management, be serviceable or not: it remains yet to be seen, whether the indiscriminate dissemination of abstruse dogmas, among the whole of the lower orders of the people, may not in the end tend to make them dissatisfied with their necessary station in society; at least in this country many are the instances of that nature which can be mentioned, and some with such aggravated circumstances of horror, that the schools have ceased to be patronised by many respectable people who were otherwise well disposed towards them.' p. 65.

The above puts us in mind of the argument used against accepting the first proffer of peace from Bonaparte;—it was necessary to wait for the evidence of facts, and a new series of victories, before his authority could be acknowledged. The bugbear of innovation is ridiculously introduced, and the whole pamphlet is written in a style of acrimony beyond what the occasion can justify. It is really disgusting to read the affidavits, protests, and counter-protests, to which poor Hannah More has given rise; and we could wish, that, where the church of England is concerned, proper care were taken by the bishop of the diocese that the Sunday-schools should be under the care of the regular clergy. With respect to other sects, we wish success also to their Sunday-schools, being persuaded that the young cannot be too early instructed in the truths of Christianity. Each sect, however, should becomingly keep within its own line; and the established church should assuredly protect itself against those who, under a very specious name, are introducing into its bosom the enemies of its establishment. Of the methodistical tendency of some schools founded in the west of England, strong evidence is produced in this pamphlet.

ART. 45.—*Letters on the present State of the Jewish Poor in the Metropolis; with Propositions for ameliorating their Condition, by improving the Morals of the Youth of both Sexes, and by rendering their Labour useful and productive in a greater Degree to themselves and to the Nation. 8vo. 1s. Richardsons. 1802.*

Our readers will be pleased to hear that there is a plan in agitation for the support of the Jewish poor, and the education of their youth. Every one who visits their abodes near the great synagogue must be sensible of their present neglected state, and the depravity necessarily resulting from it. The chief feature in this plan is to obtain from legislative authority the power of assessing the members of every synagogue to the general support of the poor, and of appointing a committee for the management of their concerns. If the



scheme should succeed, and a house of industry be formed in consequence thereof, we cannot doubt that the young may be brought up to be serviceable to themselves and the community. There are some trades, those of watch-making and shoe-making for example, to which their peculiar tenets form no obstacles: and in every trade where the individual may work by himself, and by the piece, the Jew is competent to succeed nearly as well as the Christian. We must not, however, forget that a Jew is still a Jew. It cannot be said of this people that 'they know no other country, and can only be interested in the prosperity of this their native land.' Neither the Jew nor the Christian can be possessed with the *amor patriæ* in the manner that it is felt by those who have not the hopes of the temporal establishment in Palestine of the one, or an eternal abode in the heavens of the other.—As ill founded is another sentiment in this work;

'Under whatever sect, therefore, a man chances to be born, he ought always to adhere to its form of worship; nor can he attain a better ultimatum by changing it, seeing that the final object of all is the same.' P. 14.

According to this sentiment, the world could never be improved. But we shall not scruple to assert, that, when the individual is convinced in his own mind that the religion in which he was born and bred up is contrary to truth, it is his bounden duty to abjure his errors.

ART. 46.—*Facts, explanatory of the instrumental Cause of the present high Prices of Provisions; formerly communicated in a Letter to George Cherry, Esq. then one of the Commissioners for victualling the Navy; with Observations thereon. By Thomas Butcher. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Scott. 1801.*

The facts stated in this pamphlet are of so serious and important a nature, that we can scarcely venture to hint at them without horror. If they can be substantiated, the agents of government, referred to in this work, will meet with the deserved execrations of the country. The writer states himself to have been thirty years employed in the offices where of late such mismanagement is said to have prevailed; and is ready to prove every fact here advanced 'upon oath at the bar of the house of commons, or in any court of judicature in the kingdom.' To this test he ought to be put; and this necessity will appear from the following relation.

'In the year 1796, the board made a private contract with a certain corn-factor to deliver them fifty thousand quarters of foreign wheat; when a part thereof was received at Deptford, I caused several quantities to be put upon the kilns there, as usual, to manufacture into fine flour; when it brought forth such innumerable quantities of maggots and other vermin, that I caused a measure to be filled with them, and sent to the superintendant, desiring to know, if the flour and biscuit produced from such filthy rubbish was to be served out as food fit for the use of man? I received no answer. I appealed to others about the office. The only answers (*answer*)

I could obtain, was, that the board had purchased the wheat, and of course it must be received. The horrid biscuit made from this great quantity of filthy rubbish had nearly, in the early part of the following year, proved ruinous to the nation, as it materially aided the revolting seamen in pretences for persevering in many of their unreasonable demands.' P. 31.

We can have no doubt that open contracts are to be preferred; for in the private contract there is always a suspicion that some members of the board share with the contractor in his profits, if they be enormous. Other facts also are stated, which, if true, point out an excess of mismanagement that we could hardly have suspected, even under the heedlessness and extravagance of the late administration. Whether any good would result from parliamentary investigation, we know not; but the higher officers of the executive government are interested in an inquiry which so materially affects the character and conduct of their agents.

ART. 47.—*Interesting Anecdotes of the heroic Conduct of Women, during the French Revolution. Translated from the French of M. du Broca. Embellished with an elegant Frontispiece. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Symonds. 1802.*

The voice of nature was not stifled in the horrors of the French revolution; and amidst the atrocities that have been committed by that ferocious people, several traits of heroism shone forth; and instances of benevolence, tenderness, affection, and generosity, were occasionally exhibited, which well deserve to be recorded. If any one can bear the shock which he must feel from the recital of the wickedest and most cruel actions perpetrated in the days of terror, he will be highly gratified by contrasting them with examples here offered of the greatest virtue and fortitude: and as his admiration of the heroines celebrated in this volume must augment, so must his detestation of the wretches who were glutting themselves with the murder of innocence and beauty be increased; and he will reflect, not without horror, on that train of circumstances which could lead human beings to cast away every feeling that does honour to mankind.

ART. 48.—*The Spirit of the public Journals for 1800. Being an impartial Selection of the most exquisite Essays and Jeux d'Esprit, principally Prose, that appear in the Newspapers and other Publications. With explanatory Notes. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Ridgway. 1801.*

This entertaining publication continues to furnish us with the best articles that have appeared in the newspapers, both in verse and prose.

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